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ABSTRACT

This volume is a collection of papers focused on a single theme, cooperative learning, written by classroom teachers of varying experience levels. This book introduces cooperative learning and gives examples of cooperative learning activities, units, and systems created by teachers in Japan, The United States, and Canada, who are currently using these methods. Cooperative learning is a group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups, and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others. The book is divided into sections highlighting systems, units, and activities. Systems, the largest form of cooperative learning, describes an entire way of presenting any language item or content. These systems are independent of any content and can be used to teach anything. Units are an example of extended cooperative learning activity or sets of activities with a single theme or goal that stretch over several classes, a semester, or a whole year. Activities are short cooperative learning bits that can be as short as ten minutes or cover a complete class period. The book ends with a section on evaluation. An instant index is included which presents key words for topic, institutional level, skills practiced, an abstract, and author contact information for each of the 14 chapters of text. An annotated bibliography is appended, covering books, commercial and non-profit organizations, newsletters, and web resources. Topics include: cooperative learning in Japan; implementing cooperative learning in language learning setting; an EFL-NGO forum integrating cooperative learning and global issues; developing oral fluency and interactive group skills through cooperative learning techniques; generating ideas cooperatively in a writing class; cooperative learning and assessment and evaluation. (KFT)

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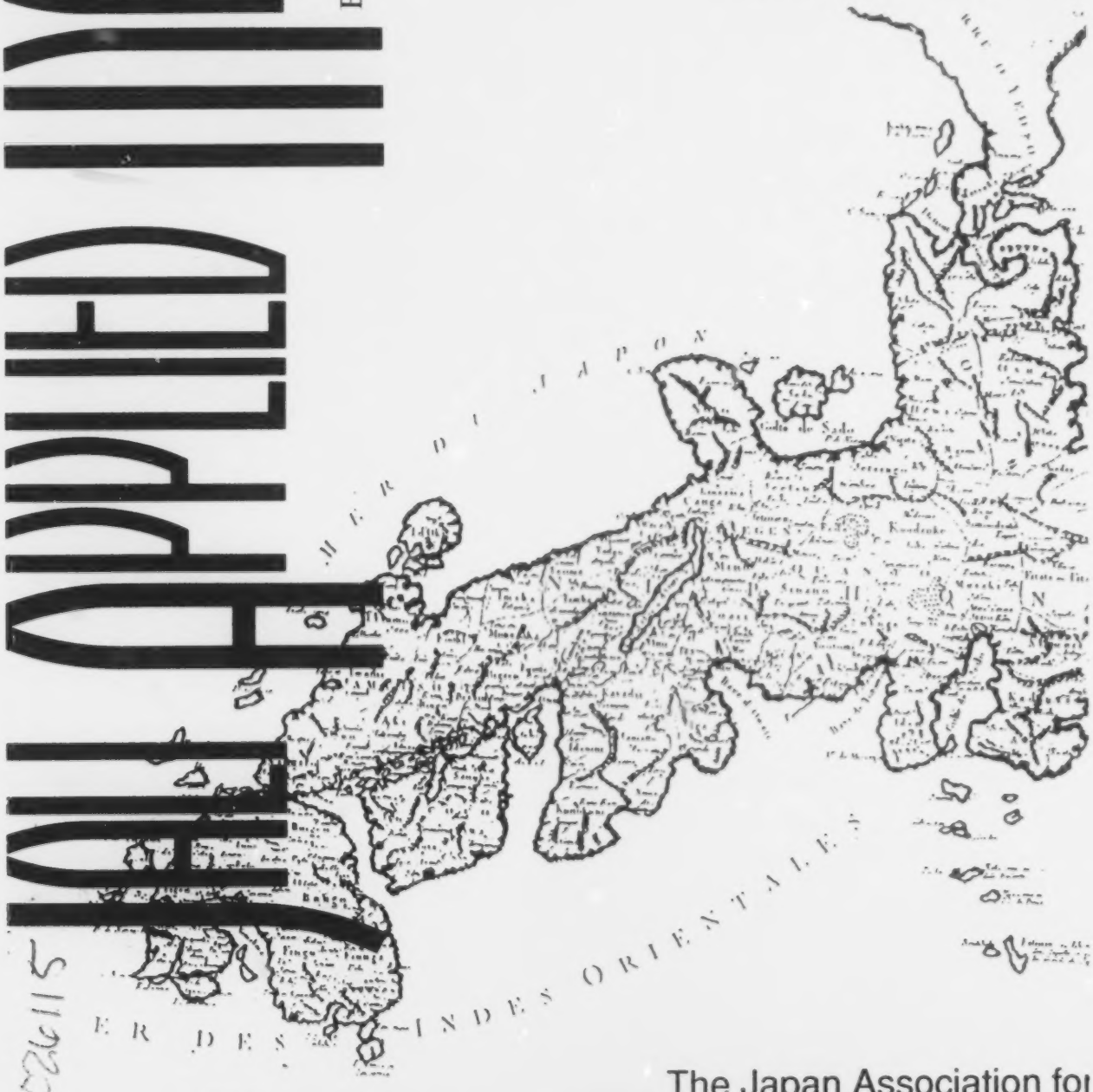
Cooperative Learning

David Kluge, Steve McGuire, David Johnson,
and Roger Johnson, Editors



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Cooperative Learning

David Kluge, Steve McGuire,
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Foreword

About JALT Applied Materials

Welcome to the JALT Applied Materials (JAM) series, of which *Cooperative Learning* is the third in the series. The concept behind JAM is that each proposed volume is a collection of papers focused on a single theme, written by classroom teachers some of whom are experienced and some of whom are just beginning.

The Situation

Why begin a new series? At present, books and collections of papers on various subjects are written and published by authors from various parts of the world, mainly from English speaking countries such as Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the U.K. and the U.S. The authors of these books and articles are typically university professors who teach courses in graduate programs and speak at conferences around the world including JALT's annual international conference.

There exists, however, a gap between the international level where these books are generated and written and the local teacher community in Japan and Asia. While these books are of general professional interest, local teachers are usually not sought as contributors and only find out about the book when they see it in the bookstore. The JAM series was created to help fill this gap.

Purpose

The JAM series is targeted at improving the quality of research and academic writing in Japan and Asia, publishing collections of articles on subjects of interest to classroom teachers which are theoretically grounded, reader friendly, and classroom oriented, giving Japan- and Asia-based classroom teachers a publication outlet not heretofore available, and helping teachers around the world implement new ideas in their classroom.

How JAM Works

We feel that JALT has reached a level of development where many of its members are capable of writing creative and professional papers. Research and writing, however, are not easy tasks and we feel that JALT members would be helped to produce quality papers if they had comprehensive and constructive editorial support and guidance. To this end, the JAM series is guided by an editorial network composed of a general series editor, one or more country-based local editors, and the possibility of an international editor for each collection of papers, all of whom would work with writers of that collection.

Any person who is a resident of Japan a member of JALT, and primarily a classroom teacher could request to be a JAM editor. Persons requesting to be editors would be asked to submit their CV and publications relevant to their subject. This Japan-based local editor (or editors) could, if they desired, ask an international expert in the field to assist them. We will refer to this editor as the "global" editor. After approval by the JAM committee of the theme and editors, the next step would be for the local editor to issue a call for abstracts. The date for first drafts would be set by the local editor and the series editor. All manuscripts must be approved by all editors: first by the local editor, then by the global editor, and finally by the series editor. This means that JAM is a vetted publication and it will be a personal as well as professional achievement to have an article published in a JAM collection.

Contributing authors to a JAM collection are expected to be classroom teachers in Japan or a country with similar teaching conditions (e.g., Korea, China, Taiwan, Thailand, etc.), to be familiar with JALT and its mission, and to submit an original article which has not been submitted to another publication. JAM welcomes new as well as experienced writers and JAM authors need not have published previously in the theme area.

Conclusion: A Unique Opportunity

JALT is a professional organization of classroom teachers who occupy the niche between new developments and traditional classroom practices. As such, we are historically positioned to creatively interact between theory and the daily reality of the classroom. We firmly believe that what we have to report will be of significant value to teachers throughout Asia and around the world. We are confident that you will concur.

N.B. Persons who desire further information about JAM should contact the series editor, Dale T. Griffee, at Seigakuin University, 1-1 Tosaki, Ageo-shi, Saitama-ken 362-8585, Japan.

Editors' Introduction

About the Book

This book introduces cooperative learning and gives examples of cooperative learning activities, units, and systems created by teachers in Japan who are currently using these methods.

About the Sections

Systems, the largest form of cooperative learning, describes an entire way of presenting any language item or content. Like structures, defined in this volume in "A Brief Introduction to Cooperative Learning" (Kluge), these systems are independent of content; that is, they can be used to teach anything the teacher selects. Units are examples of an extended cooperative learning activity or sets of activities with a single theme or goal that stretch over several classes, a semester, or a whole year. Activities are short cooperative learning bits that can be as short as ten minutes or cover a complete class period. The book then ends with a section on evaluation and an Annotated Bibliography.

Instant Index

Each paper is included in the Instant Index so that readers can quickly decide which articles to read. The Instant Index includes key words for topic, institutional level, skills practiced, an abstract, and author contact information.

Acknowledgements

The editors would like to thank the authors for their expertise and patience, our translator, Takeuchi Tomomi, our production editor, Greta Gorsuch (whom our spell checker calls "Great," to which we agree), the JAM series editor Dale Griffee for his advice, and Toshiko and Marina Kluge for their patience and understanding during the long process of putting this book together.

The Editors

Instant Index

Introduction to Cooperative Learning

Title: A Brief Introduction to Cooperative Learning
Author/s: David Kluge
Key Words: Introduction, Principles
Institutional Level: All
Description: This paper describes key elements of cooperative learning (CL), shows some research results, and concludes by describing five main types of cooperative learning.
Information about the Author/s: David Kluge, Kinjo Gakuin University, 2-1723 Omori, Moriyama-ku, Nagoya, 463-0021
Fax: 052-799-2089, <kluge@kinjo-u.ac.jp>

Title: What Makes Cooperative Learning Work
Author/s: David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson
Key Words: Introduction, Principles
Institutional Level: All
Description: This paper discusses five elements of a cooperative learning lesson and the benefits of cooperative learning.
Information about the Author/s: David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson, University of Minnesota, 60 Peik Hall, 159 Pillsbury Drive, Minneapolis, Minnesota, 55455, U.S.A.

Systems

Title: Cooperative Learning in Japan: History and Present Situation of Research and Implementation

Author/s: Sugie Shuji, translated by Takeuchi Tomomi
Key Words: Japanese Cooperative Learning, Japanese English Instruction, Buzz Learning
Institutional Level: Elementary School, Jr. and Sr. High School
Description: This paper presents a brief history of cooperative learning in Japan, describes several types of cooperative learning, and concludes with thoughts on the future of cooperative learning in Japanese contexts.
Information about the Author/s: Sugie Shuji, Chukyo University, 101-2 Yagoto Honmachi, Showa-ku, Nagoya-shi, 466-0825
Tel: 052-832-2151; fax: 052-835-7196

Title: Cooperative Attending Skills Training for ESL Students
Author/s: William Acton and Corrine Cope
Key Words: Listening Strategies, Attending
Institutional Level: University
Language Skill: Listening, Speaking
Description: This article presents the Cooperative Attending Skills Training (CAST) system, a method using cooperatively structured groups to help Japanese learners of English use authentic, extended communication with native speakers.
Information about the Author/s: William Acton, Nagoya University of Commerce, Nisshin-cho, Sagamine, Aichi-gun, Aichi-ken 470-0100.
Tel: 05617-3-2111; fax: 05617-3-1202; < i44993g@nucc.cc.nagoya-u.ac.jp>.
Corrine Cope, University of Missouri-Columbia.

Title: Implementing Cooperative Learning at a Language School
Author/s: Soo-im Lee
Key Words: Program Implementation, Teacher and Student Training
Institutional Level: Language School
Language Skill: Speaking
Description: This paper describes a program evaluation of CL in a private language school. The program evaluation revealed that student resistance to CL was due to lack of training of students, a lack of understanding of basic principles by administers, and a lack of CL techniques on the part of teachers.
Information about the Author/s: Soo-im Lee, Ryukoku University, 2-7-28 Senbon-naka, Nishinari-ku, Osaka, 557-0054.
Tel/Fax: 06-6658-4642; <mkashani@gol.com>

Units

Title: The EFL NGO Forum: Integrating Cooperative Learning and Global Issues
Author/s: Amy D. Yamashiro and John W. McLaughlin
Key Words: Global Issues, Simulation, Projects
Institutional Level: High School, Jr. College, University
Language Skill: Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing
Description: This paper explains the rationale and design of a communicative EFL course culminating in a mock NGO Forum on environmental problems.
Information about the Author/s: Amy D. Yamashiro, Nihon University, <amy@gol.com>
John W. McLaughlin, Kanagawa Prefectural College of Foreign Studies, <jmcl@gol.com>
Tel/Fax: 048-831-9056

Title: Reading Together
Author/s: Patricia Thornton
Key Words: Literature
Institutional Level: Jr. College
Language Skill: Reading, Speaking, Writing
Description: This paper describes a junior college reading course in Japan which utilized cooperative learning techniques to encourage group discussion and language skill development.
Information about the Author/s: Patricia Thornton, Associate Professor, Kinjo Gakuin University, 2-1723 Omori, Moriyama-ku, Nagoya, 463-0021 <thornton@kinjo-u.ac.jp>

Activities

Title: Cooperative Learning and Learner-Centered Projects for Lower-Level University Students
Author/s: Bob Servetter
Key Words: Projects
Institutional Level: University
Language Skill: Speaking, Reading
Description: This paper describes a learner-centered group project. The author gives the objectives, structures, and results of a student questionnaire.
Information about the Author/s: Bob Servetter, Fukuoka University, Faculty of Humanities, 8-19-1 Nanakuma, Jonan-ku, Fukuoka, 811-01
Tel: 092-871-6631 ext. 4329; Fax: 0940-32-7546; <bob@jsat.fukuoka-u.ac.jp>

Title: Positively Interdependent: Developing Oral Fluency via Task Design
Author/s: Gabriel Lee
Key Words: Fluency, Task Design
Institutional Level: High School
Language Skill: Speaking, Reading
Description: This paper describers positive interdependence and individual accountability in a high school reading and fluency class. Qualitative data from student evaluations are discussed.
Information about the Author/s: Gabriel Lee, Showa Women's University attached Jr-Sr High School, Taishida 1-7, Setagaya-ku, Tokyo, 154
Tel: 03-5301-7225

Title: Developing Interactive Group Skills Through Cooperative Learning
Author/s: Robert M. Homan and Christopher Jon Poel
Key Words: Cooperative Skills, Leadership, Roleplay
Institutional Level: University
Language Skill: Speaking
Description: This article proposes CL as a way of improving group work by giving students a reason to work together. Cooperative tasks designed for university students are explained.
Information about the Author/s:
Chris Poel, Tel/Fax: 0559-26-6917, <cjp03l@zb3.so-net.ne.jp>
Robert Homan, International Christian University, 3-10-2 Osawa, Mitaka, Tokyo 181-0015

Title: Generating Ideas Cooperatively in Writing Class: Prewriting Activities for Junior College Students
Author/s: Ann F. V. Smith
Key Words: Composition, Prewriting, Content-Based Teaching
Institutional Level: Jr. College
Language Skill: Writing, Speaking
Description: This paper discusses how to use CL techniques in an EFL writing class. Several writing tasks using a variety of structures are explained.
Information about the Author/s: Ann Smith, c/o Bears 112 Purcell's Cove Road, Halifax, Nova Scotia, B3P 1B4, Canada

Title: Implementation of Buzz Learning to English Language Education in a Junior High School
Author/s: Inoue Tetsuro
Key Words: Japanese English Instruction Situation, Motivation, Discipline, Buzz Learning
Institutional Level: Jr. High School

Language Skill: Reading Aloud, Translation, Speaking
Description: After presenting an historical background of English education, this paper gives examples of lessons based on BAZU (BUZZ) learning principles, which show students improving in both ability and attitude.
Information about the Author/s: Inoue Tetsuro, Ogata Junior High School. Please contact c/o Sugie Shuji above.

Evaluation

Title: Cooperative Learning and Assessment
Author/s: David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson
Key Words: Assessment
Institutional Level: All
Language Skill: Speaking, Listening, Reading, Writing
Description: This article discusses the purpose and focus of assessment, the settings, the stakes, and the stakeholders. Procedures are described that can be used to assess student learning and instructional effectiveness.
Information about the Author/s: See above.

Title: A Cooperative Performance Test for Japanese University Conversation Classes
Author/s: Jane Joritz-Nakagawa
Key Words: Assessment
Institutional Level: University
Language Skill: Speaking.
Description: This paper describes the creation and use of an oral communication performance test in first year classes at a Japanese university. The author details the content, scoring method, and common problems and solutions in using the test.
Information about the Author/s: Jane Joritz-Nakagawa, <vf2j-nkgw@asahi-net.or.jp>

Annotated Bibliography

Title: A Brief Annotated Bibliography of Cooperative Language Learning
Author/s: Steve McGuire
Key Words: Bibliography
Institutional Level: All
Information about the Author/s: Steve McGuire, Nagoya University of Arts, School of Music, Shikatsu-cho, Nishikasugai-gun, Aichi-ken 481-8503 Tel. 0568-24-0315, fax 0568-24-0317, <spm@gol.com>

SECTION I

Introduction to Cooperative Learning
協同学習の紹介

Chapter 1

A Brief Introduction to Cooperative Learning

David Kluge

Kinjo Gakuin University

It is easy to hop on the newest language teaching methodology wagon as it takes the profession on its usually short ride. However, when a teaching/learning method has through careful research shown itself to be superior to the status quo in ways that language teachers care about, when the method has been worked out in detail over a period of twenty years and has been shown to be relevant to the specific situation in which we find ourselves, then it is necessary to make sure that other language teachers in Japan hear about the method. The purpose of this book is to share this method with teachers who are convinced that group work is essential to students attaining communicative competence, but are often disappointed with both the process and product of typical group work activities.

Cooperative learning (CL) is not a new fad. Olsen and Kagan (1992) state that its basic roots have been traced back to the Talmud. It manifested itself in England in the late 18th century schools of Joseph Lancaster and Andrew Bell, and in the U.S. in 1806 when a Lancastrian school opened which started the "common school" movement that implemented cooperation in learning. Co-

Kluge, D. (1999). A brief introduction to cooperative learning. In D. Kluge, S. McGuire, D. Johnson, & R. Johnson (Eds.), *JALT applied materials: Cooperative learning* (pp. 16-22). Tokyo: Japan Association for Language Teaching.

operative learning is associated with Colonel Francis Parker, superintendent of public schools in Quincy, Massachusetts from 1875 to 1880. Dewey (in Sharan & Sharan 1992), incorporated cooperative learning into his project method of education. During the 1940s and 1950s more interest was focused on competitive learning, but in the 1960s interest in cooperative learning was revived. In the 1970s and 1980s cooperative learning activities were formalized into the structures now recognized as Cooperative Learning.

What Cooperative Learning Is

Olsen and Kagan (1992, p. 8) define Cooperative Learning:

> Cooperative Learning is group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others.

The theoretical bases of cooperative learning come from Vygotsky, with his Zone of Proximal Development Theory, Wittrock, with his Theory of Cognitive Elaboration, and Deutsch with his theory of goal structures. Vygotsky (1988) called the Zone of Proximal Development "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem-solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers." Vygotsky (in Johnson and Johnson [1991]) stated: "What children can do together today, they can do alone tomorrow."

Wittrock (1978) theorized that when a person teaches or explains something, that person learns most effectively. He called this the Theory of Cognitive Elaboration or Cognitive Restructuring.

In 1949 Deutsch (in Slavin [1990]) identified three different goal structures in classrooms: cooperative, competitive, and individualistic. Deutsch's work has served as the basis for many empirical studies of cooperative learning in the classroom.

There are several key elements of a cooperative lesson described below.

1. Positive Interdependence. This is structuring group work so that in order for a group to succeed, all members in the group must meet their individual goals. Ways to structure positive interdependence include:

   Positive Goal Interdependence: The group might turn in a single paper or report, but all students must achieve their individual goals, that is, increase their individual scores by 5%, for example.

Positive Resource Interdependence: The group shares one pencil and one piece of paper, or one copy of a handout.

Positive Reward Interdependence: Every group member gets bonus points if all group members improve by a certain percentage.

Positive Identity Interdependence: Students choose a group name, flag, or sign.

Positive Role Interdependence: Each group member takes on an essential role, such as reader, writer, encourager, checker, praiser, and so forth.

Positive Outside Enemy Interdependence: The group competes against another group or against its own earlier score.

2. Team Formation. Research shows that heterogeneously grouped teams show more benefits than homogeneously formed teams (Dishon & O'Leary, 1984). Once groups are formed, group cohesion is engendered through team building activities. Cooperative groups usually consist of two to four members.
3. Accountability. Each individual is accountable for his or her own learning and is also accountable to the group. This means that grading takes into account individual grades and group grades (Olsen & Kagan, 1992).
4. Social Skills. Though usually thought unnecessary, especially in Japan, it is often necessary to explicitly teach the language and behavior needed to work together in English. Cooperative Learning emphasizes the explicit teaching of social skills (Dishon & O'Leary, 1984).
5. Structures and Structuring. These are a set of ways to organize student interactions with other students and with the content (Olsen & Kagan, 1992). Each structure explains step-by-step what the teacher and students must do. These structures are generic, content-free procedures that can be used for any subject at any age or proficiency level.
6. Distributed Leadership. All group members should have a turn as group leader (Dishon & O'Leary, 1984).
7. Group Autonomy. Groups should first work to solve their problems unaided so that each individual learns to rely on the members of the group to explain or to work out ambiguities together.
8. Group Processing. At the end of an activity or unit, the group should reflect on how it has performed by reviewing the skills that it practiced, what it did well, and what it needs to work on next time. Teachers may provide a handout to track use of the skills.
9. Face-to-Face Promotive Interaction. For cooperative learning to be effective, the members of the group have to be in very close physical proximity, face to face.

Research

There have been numerous studies comparing competitive or individualistic learning with cooperative learning in the past twenty years. Johnson and Johnson (1989) did a meta-analysis of 352 of these studies and found that achievement was higher for students engaged in cooperative learning. Other general suggested findings are that with cooperative learning students:

- more frequently use high-level reasoning strategies (Spurlin, Dansereau, Larson, & Brooks, 1984; Larson, Dansereau, O'Donnell, Hythecker, Lambiotte, & Rocklin, 1985)
- have higher scores on subsequent tests taken individually (Lambiotte, Dansereau, Rocklin, Fletcher, Hythecker, Larson, & O'Donnell, 1987).
- like their classmates better (Cooper, Johnson, Johnson, & Wilderson, 1980)
- have increased self-esteem (Slavin, 1983)
- increase their ability to be self-directed (Johnson, Johnson, Johnson, & Anderson 1976)
- increase their liking for the class in general (Kulik & Kulik, 1979).

In language classes, research on cooperative learning has suggested that it:

- was better than whole class instruction for developing integrative and discrete language skills (Bejarano, 1987)
- encouraged students to take more turns in cooperative learning groups compared to a teacher-centered class, thus leading to more practice in language production (Deen, 1991).

Models of Cooperative Learning

There is more than one flavor of cooperative learning. The five most common models of cooperative learning are The Structural Approach (Kagan, 1989), Group Investigation (Sharan & Sharan, 1992), Student Team Investigation (Aronson, Blaney, Stephan, Sikes, & Snapp, 1978; Slavin, 1990), Curriculum Packages (Slavin, Leavey, & Madden, 1986; Slavin et al., 1986), and Learning Together (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1991, 1992, 1994). A brief description of each model follows:

The Structural Approach is based on the use of various distinct sequences of classroom behaviors, called structures (Kagan, 1989). A structure is not an activity but is a framework within which an activity is done. Structures can be used over and over again with different curriculum materials and throughout a syllabus. For a list of structures see Olsen & Kagan (1992) or Kagan (1989, 1994).

Group Investigation, summarized in Sharan (1994), incorporates four basic features: investigation, interaction, interpretation, and intrinsic motivation:

1. Investigation. Each student is an investigator who coordinates his or her inquiry into the class's common research project which is a challenging, multifaceted problem presented by the teacher.
2. Interaction. Students must learn to work as a team and discuss topics.
3. Interpretation. Students compile information from a variety of sources, exchange information and ideas, and integrate what they have learned with what their research partners share from their own investigations.
4. Intrinsic Motivation. Since students have control of their own learning and must share what they have learned with others, there is a high level of motivation to learn.

Student Team Investigation: This model of cooperative learning was developed by Aronson and Slavin. Examples are the various kinds of jigsaw activities, and procedures to structure interdependence.

Curriculum Packages are sets of cooperative learning material that are usually specific to a subject and age level. Two commercially published examples are Comprehensive Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC), (Slavin, Leavey, & Madden, 1986), and Team Accelerated Instruction (TAI) (Slavin et al., 1986), which uses cooperative learning procedures to teach mathematics.

Learning Together: This approach, developed by David Johnson and Roger Johnson, emphasizes the teaching and practicing of the social skills required to work together. Teachers learn to evaluate material to be taught, choose the type of activity appropriate to help students learn that material, and structure the activity so that it incorporates all five of the elements they see as a requirement for a lesson to be considered cooperative. (For an explanation of the five elements see their article in this volume.)

Conclusion

Teachers can choose one of the models of CL described above, but may be better off adopting and adapting parts of several models to create their own flavor of CL that best fits their teaching style and situation. For examples of how to do this, refer to the articles in this volume.

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Chapter 2

What Makes Cooperative Learning Work

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This paper will give an introduction to cooperative learning (CL) by providing a definition of what it is and isn't, providing basic principles, describing two basic types of cooperative learning, and listing the benefits of CL suggested by previous research.

In order to understand the power of cooperation, it is necessary to understand what is and is not a cooperative effort, the types of cooperative learning, the five basic elements that make cooperation work, and the outcomes that result when cooperation is carefully structured.

What Is and Is Not a Cooperative Group

Some kinds of learning groups facilitate student learning and increase the quality of life in the classroom. Other types of learning groups hinder student learning and create disharmony and dissatisfaction with classroom life. To use cooperative learning effectively, you must know what is and is not a cooperative

Johnson, D.W., and Johnson, R.T. (1999). What makes cooperative learning work. In D. Kluge, S. McGuire, D. Johnson, & R. Johnson (Eds.), *JALT applied materials: Cooperative learning* (pp. 23-36). Tokyo: Japan Association for Language Teaching.

group. The following may be helpful in answering the question, *"What type of group am I using?"* (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1993).

Pseudo-Learning Group
Students are assigned to work together but they have no interest in doing so. They believe they will be evaluated by being ranked from the highest performer to the lowest performer. While on the surface students talk to each other, under the surface they are competing. They see each other as rivals who must be defeated, who block or interfere with each other's learning, hide information from each other, attempt to mislead and confuse each other, and distrust each other. The result is that the sum of the whole is less than the potential of the individual members. Students would achieve more if they were working alone.

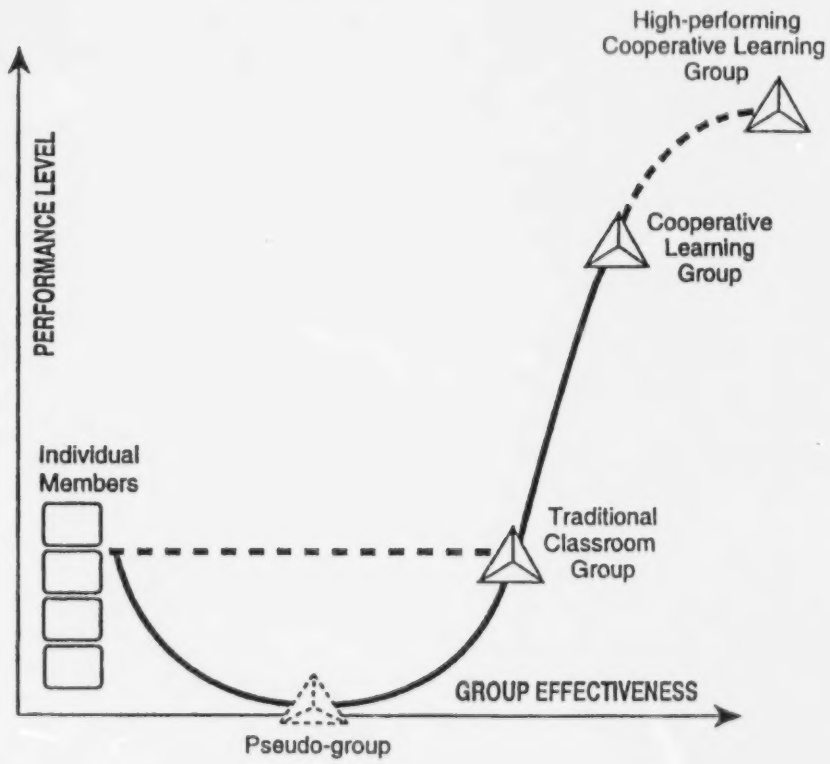
Traditional Classroom Learning Group
Students are assigned to work together and accept that they have to do so. Assignments are structured, however, so that very little joint work is required. Students believe that they will be evaluated and rewarded as individuals, not as members of the group. They interact primarily to clarify how assignments are to be done. They seek each other's information, but have no motivation to teach what they know to their groupmates. Helping and sharing is minimized. Some students loaf, seeking a free ride on the efforts of their more conscientious groupmates. The conscientious members feel exploited and do less. The result is that the sum of the whole is more than the potential of some of the members, but the more hard working and conscientious students would perform better if they worked alone.

Cooperative Learning Group
Students work together to accomplish shared goals. Students are given two responsibilities: to maximize their own learning and to maximize the learning of all other group members. Students perceive that they can reach their learning goals if and only if the other students in the learning group also reach their goals (Deutsch, 1949). Thus, students seek outcomes that are beneficial to all those with whom they are cooperatively linked. Students discuss material with each other, help one another understand it, and encourage each other to work hard. Individual performance is checked regularly to ensure that all students are contributing and learning. A criteria-referenced evaluation system is used. Any assignment in any curriculum for any age student can be done cooperatively. There is an emphasis on continuous improvement of the quality of learning and teamwork processes. The result is that the group is more than a sum of its parts and all students perform better academically than they would if they worked alone.

High-Performance Cooperative Learning Group
This is a group that meets all the criteria for being a cooperative learning group and outperforms all reasonable expectations, given its membership. What differentiates the high-performance group from the cooperative learning group is the level of commitment members have to each other and the group's success. Members' mutual concern for each other results in the group performing far above expectations, and also to have lots of fun. The bad news about high-performance cooperative groups is that they are rare. Most groups never achieve this level of development.

The learning group performance curve in Figure 1 illustrates that how well any small group performs depends on how it is structured. Placing people in the same room and calling them a cooperative group does not make them one. Study groups, project groups, lab groups, home rooms, and reading groups are

The Learning Group Performance Curve



groups, but they are not necessarily cooperative. Even with the best of intentions, teachers may be using traditional classroom learning groups rather than cooperative learning groups. Teachers should structure students into learning groups, diagnose where on the group performance curve the groups are, keep strengthening the basic elements of cooperation, and move the groups up the performance curve until they are truly cooperative learning groups.

Basic Elements of Cooperation

In order for a lesson to be cooperative, five basic elements are essential and need to be included (Johnson & Johnson, 1989; Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1993). The five essential elements are as follows.

1. Positive Interdependence

Positive interdependence is the perception that you are linked with others in a way so that you cannot succeed unless they do (and vice versa); that is, their work benefits you and your work benefits them. It promotes a situation in which students work together in small groups to maximize the learning of all members, sharing their resources, providing mutual support, and celebrating their joint success. Positive interdependence is the heart of cooperative learning. Students must believe that they sink or swim together. Within every cooperative lesson, positive goal interdependence must be established through *mutual learning goals* (learn the assigned material and make sure that all members of your group learn the assigned material). In order to strengthen positive interdependence, *joint rewards* (if all members of your group score 90 percent correct or better on the test, each will receive 5 bonus points), *divided resources* (giving each group member a part of the total information required to complete an assignment), and *complementary roles* (reader, checker, encourager, elaborator) may also be used. For a learning situation to be cooperative, students must perceive that they are positively interdependent with other members of their learning group.

It is positive interdependence that creates the overall superordinate goals that unite diverse students into a common effort. It is also positive interdependence that results in a joint superordinate identity. Students need to develop a unique identity as an individual, a social identity based among other things on their ethnic, historical, and cultural background, and a superordinate identity that unites them with all the other members of their society. At the same time they need to understand the social identity of classmates and respect them as collaborators and friends. It is positive interdependence, furthermore, that underlies a common culture that defines the values and nature of the society in which the students live.

2. Individual Accountability

Individual accountability exists when the performance of each individual student is assessed and the results are given back to the group and the individual. It is important that the group knows who needs more assistance, support, and encouragement in completing the assignment. It is also important that group members know that they cannot "hitch-hike" on the work of others. The purpose of cooperative learning groups is to make each member a stronger individual in his or her own right. Students learn together so that they can subsequently perform higher as individuals. To ensure that each member is strengthened, students are held individually accountable to do their share of the work. Common ways to structure individual accountability include (a) giving an individual test to each student, (b) randomly selecting one student's product to represent the entire group, or (c) having each student explain what they have learned to a classmate.

3. Face-To-Face Promotive Interaction

Once teachers establish positive interdependence, they need to maximize the opportunity for students to promote each other's success by helping, assisting, supporting, encouraging, and praising each other's efforts to learn. There are cognitive activities and interpersonal dynamics that only occur when students get involved in promoting each other's learning. This includes orally explaining how to solve problems, discussing the nature of the concepts being learned, teaching one's knowledge to classmates, and connecting present with past learning.

Accountability to peers, the ability to influence each other's reasoning and conclusions, social modeling, social support, and interpersonal rewards all increase as the face-to-face interaction among group members increase. In addition, the verbal and nonverbal responses of other group members provide important information concerning a student's performance. Silent students are uninvolved students who are not contributing to the learning of others as well as themselves. Promoting each other's success results in both higher achievement and in getting to know each other on a personal as well as a professional level. To obtain meaningful face-to-face interaction the size of groups needs to be small (two to four members). Finally, while positive interdependence creates the conditions for working together, it is the actual face-to-face interaction in which students work together and promote each other's success that the personal relationships are formed that are essential for developing pluralistic values.

4. Social Skills

Contributing to the success of a cooperative effort requires interpersonal and small group skills. Placing socially unskilled individuals in a group and telling them to cooperate does not guarantee that they will be able to do so effectively. Persons must be taught the social skills for high quality cooperation and be

motivated to use them. Leadership, decision-making, trust-building, communication, and conflict-management skills have to be taught just as purposefully and precisely as academic skills. Procedures and strategies for teaching students social skills may be found in D.W. Johnson (1991, 1997) and D.W. Johnson and F. Johnson (1997). Finally, social skills are required for interacting effectively with peers from other cultures and ethnic groups.

5. Group Processing

Group processing exists when group members discuss how well they are achieving their goals and maintaining effective working relationships. Groups need to describe what member actions are helpful and unhelpful and make decisions about what behaviors to continue or change. Students must also be given the time and procedures for analyzing how well their learning groups are functioning and the extent to which students are employing their social skills to help all group members to achieve and to maintain effective working relationships within the group. Such processing (a) enables learning groups to focus on group maintenance, (b) facilitates the learning of social skills, (c) ensures that members receive feedback on their participation, and (d) reminds students to practice collaborative skills consistently. Some of the keys to successful processing are allowing sufficient time for it to take place, making it specific rather than vague, maintaining student involvement in processing, reminding students to use their social skills while they process, and ensuring that clear expectations as to the purpose of processing have been communicated. Finally, when difficulties in relating to each other arise, students must engage in group processing and identity, define, and solve the problems they are having in working together effectively.

In order to effectively use cooperative learning, teachers must understand the nature of cooperation and the essential components of a well-structured cooperative lesson. Understanding what positive interdependence, promotive interaction, individual accountability, social skills, and group processing are, and developing skills in structuring them, allow teachers to (a) adapt cooperative learning to their unique circumstances, needs, and students and (b) fine-tune their use of cooperative learning to solve problems students are having in working together.

Types of Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning groups may be used to teach specific content (*formal cooperative learning groups*), to ensure active cognitive processing of information during a lecture or demonstration (*informal cooperative learning groups*), and to provide long-term support and assistance for academic progress (*cooperative base groups*) (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1992, 1993).

Formal Cooperative Learning

Formal cooperative learning is students working together, for one class period to several weeks, to achieve shared learning goals and jointly complete specific tasks and assignments (such as decision making or problem solving, completing a curriculum unit, writing a report, conducting a survey or experiment, reading a chapter or reference book, learning vocabulary, or answering questions at the end of the chapter). In formal cooperative learning groups teachers (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1993):

1. Specify the objectives for the lesson. In every lesson there should be an academic objective specifying the concepts and strategies to be learned and a social skills objective specifying the interpersonal or small group skill to be used and mastered during the lesson.
2. Make preinstructional decisions. A teacher has to decide on the size of groups, the method of assigning students to groups, the roles students will be assigned, the materials needed to conduct the lesson, and the way the room will be arranged.
3. Explain the task and the positive interdependence. A teacher clearly defines the assignment, teaches the required concepts and strategies, specifies the positive interdependence and individual accountability, gives the criteria for success, and explains the expected social skills to be engaged in.
4. Monitor students' learning and intervene within the groups to provide task assistance or to increase students' interpersonal and group skills. A teacher systematically observes and collects data on each group as it works. When it is needed, the teacher intervenes to assist students in completing the task accurately and in working together effectively.
5. Assess students' learning and help students process how well their groups functioned. Students' learning is carefully assessed and their performances are evaluated. Members of the learning groups then process how effectively they have been working together.

Informal Cooperative Learning

Informal cooperative learning consists of having students work together to achieve a joint learning goal in temporary, ad hoc groups that last from a few minutes to one class period (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1992; Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991). During a lecture, demonstration, or film, informal cooperative learning can be used to (a) focus student attention on the material to be learned, (b) set a mood conducive to learning, (c) help set expectations as to what will be covered in a class session, (d) ensure that students cognitively process the material being taught, and (e) provide closure to an instructional session. During direct teaching the instructional

challenge for the teacher is to ensure that students do the intellectual work of organizing material, explaining it, summarizing it, and integrating it into existing conceptual structures. Informal cooperative learning groups are often organized so that students engage in three-to-five minute focused discussions before and after a lecture and two-to-three minute turn-to-your-partner discussions interspersed throughout a lecture.

Cooperative Base Groups

Cooperative base groups are long-term, heterogeneous cooperative learning groups with stable membership (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1992; Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991). The purposes of the base group are to give the support, help, encouragement, and assistance each member needs to make academic progress (attend class, complete all assignments, learn) and develop cognitively and socially in healthy ways. Base groups meet daily in elementary school and twice a week in secondary school (or whenever the class meets). They are permanent (lasting from one to several years) and provide the long-term caring peer relationships necessary to influence members consistently to work hard in school. They formally meet to discuss the academic progress of each member, provide help and assistance to each other, and verify that each member is completing assignments and progressing satisfactorily through the academic program. Base groups may also be responsible for letting absent group members know what went on in class when they miss a session. Informally, members interact every day within and between classes, discussing assignments, and helping each other with homework. The use of base groups tends to improve attendance, personalize the work required and the school experience, and improve the quality and quantity of learning. The larger the class or school and the more complex and difficult the subject matter, the more important it is to have base groups. Base groups are also helpful in structuring homerooms and when a teacher meets with a number of advisees.

The Cooperative School

In addition to structuring classroom work cooperatively, school administrators may structure teachers into cooperative teams. There are three types of cooperative teams within a school (Johnson & Johnson, 1994). *Colleagial teaching teams* are formed to increase teachers' instructional expertise and success. They consist of two to five teachers who meet weekly and discuss how better to implement cooperative learning within their classrooms. Teachers are assigned to *task forces* to plan and implement solutions to school-wide issues and problems such as curriculum adoptions and lunchroom behavior. *Ad hoc decision-making groups* are used during faculty meetings to involve all staff members in important school decisions.

The use of cooperative teams at the building level ensures that there is a congruent cooperative team-based organizational structure within both classrooms and the school. Finally, the superintendent uses the same types of cooperative teams to maximize the productivity of district administrators.

What Do We Know About Cooperative Efforts: The Research

Learning together to complete assignments can have profound effects on students. A great deal of research has been conducted comparing the relative effects of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic efforts on instructional outcomes. During the past 100 years over 550 experimental and 100 correlational studies have been conducted by a wide variety of researchers in different decades with different age subjects, in different subject areas, and in different settings (see Johnson & Johnson, 1989, for a complete listing and review of these studies).

The type of interdependence structured among students determines how they interact with each other, which in turn largely determines instructional outcomes. Structuring situations cooperatively results in students interacting in ways that promote each other's success, structuring situations competitively results in students interacting in ways that oppose each other's success, and structuring situations individualistically results in no interaction among students. These interaction patterns affect numerous instructional outcomes, which may be subsumed within the three broad and interrelated categories of effort exerted to achieve, quality of relationships among participants, and participants' psychological adjustment and social competence (Johnson & Johnson, 1989).

Achievement

Over 375 studies have been conducted over the past 100 years to investigate how successful competitive, individualistic, and cooperative efforts are in promoting productivity and achievement (for a detailed explanation of these studies, see Johnson & Johnson, 1989). Working together to achieve a common goal produces higher achievement and greater productivity than does working alone. This is confirmed by so much research that it stands as one of the strongest principles of social and organizational psychology. Cooperative learning, furthermore, seems to have resulted in more higher-level reasoning, more frequent generation of new ideas and solutions, and greater transfer of what is learned within one situation to another than did competitive or individualistic learning. The more conceptual the task, the more problem solving required, the more desirable higher-level reasoning and critical thinking, the more creativity required, and the greater the application required of what is being learned to the real world, the greater the superiority of cooperative over competitive and individualistic efforts.

Some cooperative learning procedures contain a mixture of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic efforts while others are "pure." The original "jigsaw" procedure (Aronson, 1978), for example, is a combination of resource interdependence (cooperative) and individual reward structure (individualistic). Teams-Games-Tournaments (DeVries & Edwards, 1974) and Student-Teams-Achievement-Divisions (Slavin, 1986) are mixtures of cooperation and intergroup competition. Team-Assisted-Instruction (Slavin, 1986) is a mixture of individualistic and cooperative learning. When the results of "pure" and "mixed" operationalizations of cooperative learning were compared, the "pure" operationalizations produced higher achievement.

In a group, differences among individuals in personality, gender, attitudes, background, social class, reasoning strategies, cognitive perspectives, information, ability levels, and skills were found to promote achievement and productivity (see Johnson & Johnson, 1989).

Interpersonal Relationships

Individuals care more about each other and are more committed to each other's success and well-being when they work together to get the job done than when they compete to see who is best or work independently from each other. This is true when groups are homogeneous and it is also true when individuals in groups differ in intellectual ability, handicapping conditions, ethnic membership, social class, and gender. When groups are heterogeneous, cooperating on a task results in more realistic and positive views of each other. As relationships become more positive, there are corresponding increases in productivity, feelings of personal commitment and responsibility to do the assigned work, willingness to take on and persist in completing difficult tasks, morale, and commitment to peer's success and growth. Absenteeism and turnover of membership decreases.

There are 180 studies that have been conducted since the 1940s on the relative impact of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic experiences on interpersonal attraction (see Johnson & Johnson (1989) for a summary of these studies). The data from a meta-analysis of these 180 studies seemed to indicate that cooperative experiences promote greater interpersonal attraction than do competitive or individualistic ones. Studies that were able to operationalize "cooperation" effectively seemed to indicate a stronger impact of cooperation on interpersonal attraction. The positive relationships formed transferred to voluntary choice situations. Even when individuals initially dislike each other, cooperative experiences have been found to promote liking.

Much of the research on interpersonal relationships has been conducted on relationships between white and minority students and between nonhandicapped and handicapped students (Johnson & Johnson, 1989). There have been over 40 experimental studies comparing some combination of cooperative, com-

petitive, and individualistic experiences on cross-ethnic relationships and over 40 similar studies on mainstreaming of handicapped students (Johnson & Johnson, 1989). Their results were consistent. Working cooperatively creates more positive relationships among diverse and heterogeneous students than does learning competitively or individualistically.

Once the relationship is established, the next question becomes "why?" The social judgments individuals make about each other increase or decrease the liking they feel towards each other. Such social judgments are the result of either a process of acceptance or a process of rejection (Johnson & Johnson, 1989). The process of acceptance is based on the individuals promoting mutual goal accomplishment as a result of their perceived positive interdependence. The promotive interaction tends to result in frequent, accurate, and open communication; accurate understanding of each other's perspective; inducibility; differentiated, dynamic, and realistic views of each other; high self-esteem; success and productivity; and expectations for positive and productive future interaction. The process of rejection results from oppositional or no interaction based on perceptions of negative or no interdependence. Both lead to no or inaccurate communication; egocentrism; resistance to influence; monopolistic, stereotyped, and static views of others; low self-esteem; failure; and expectations of distasteful and unpleasant interaction with others. The processes of acceptance and rejection are self-perpetuating. Any part of the process tends to elicit all the other parts of the process.

Psychological Health and Social Competence

Working cooperatively with peers and valuing cooperation results in greater psychological health and higher self-esteem than does competing with peers or working independently. Personal ego-strength, self-confidence, independence, and autonomy are all promoted by being involved in cooperative efforts with caring people who are committed to each other's success and well-being, and who respect each other as separate and unique individuals. When individuals work together to complete assignments, they interact (mastering social skills and competencies), they promote each other's success (gaining self-worth), and they form personal as well as professional relationships (creating the basis for healthy social development). Individuals' psychological adjustment and health tend to increase when schools are dominated by cooperative efforts. The more individuals work cooperatively with others, the more they see themselves as worthwhile and as having value, the greater their productivity, the greater their acceptance and support of others, and the more autonomous and independent they tend to be. A positive self-identity is developed basically within supportive, caring, cooperative relationships while a negative self-identity is developed within competitive, rejecting, or uncaring relationships. Children who are isolated usu-

ally develop the most self-rejecting identities. Cooperative experiences are not a luxury. They are an absolute necessity for the healthy social and psychological development of individuals who can function independently.

Reciprocal Relationships Among Outcomes

There are bidirectional relationships among efforts to achieve, quality of relationships, and psychological health (Johnson & Johnson, 1989). Each influences the others. First, caring and committed friendships come from a sense of mutual accomplishment, mutual pride in joint work, and the bonding that results from joint efforts. The more students care about each other, on the other hand, the harder they will work to achieve mutual learning goals. Second, joint efforts to achieve mutual goals promote higher self-esteem, self-efficacy, personal control, and confidence in their competencies. The healthier psychologically individuals are, on the other hand, the better able they are to work with others to achieve mutual goals. Third, psychological health is built on the internalization of the caring and respect received from loved-ones. Friendships are developmental advantages that promote self-esteem, self-efficacy, and general psychological adjustment. On the other hand, the healthier people are psychologically (i.e., free of psychological pathology such as depression, paranoia, anxiety, fear of failure, repressed anger, hopelessness, and meaninglessness), the more caring and committed their relationships. Since each outcome can induce the others, they are likely to be found together. They are a package with each outcome a door into all three outcomes. And together they induce positive interdependence and promotive interaction.

Research In Different Cultures

Part of the generalizability of the research on cooperation is the diversity of settings in which the research has been conducted. Research on cooperation has been conducted in numerous countries and cultures. In North America (United States, Canada, Mexico), for example, research has been conducted with Caucasian, Black-American, Native-American, and Hispanic subject populations. In addition, cooperation has been researched in Asia (Japan), Australia, New Zealand, the Middle East (Israel), Africa (Nigeria, South Africa), Europe (Greece, Norway, Sweden, Finland, Germany, France, Netherlands, England), and many other countries. Essentially, the findings have been consistent. Higher productivity, more positive relationships, and increased social adjustment and competencies are found in cooperative than in competitive or individualistic situations. The robustness of the research in a wide variety of cultures adds to the validity and generalizability of the theory. The critical research, however, has yet to be conducted. It seems reason-

able that different cultures have different definitions of (a) what is cooperative and competitive, and (b) where each is appropriate. Within the United States, for example, different Native American tribes have quite different views of cooperation and competition and different ways of expressing them. Given the hundreds of studies that have established the basic theory of cooperation and competition, there is a need for considerable more research to establish the cultural nuances of how cooperative efforts are conducted.

Conclusion

While lessons may be structured competitively, individualistically, and cooperatively, cooperation by far has the most powerful and positive influences on instructional outcomes. Cooperative learning is the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximize their own and each other's learning. Cooperative learning may be differentiated from other small groups, such as pseudo groups and traditional classroom learning groups. The basic elements that make cooperation work are positive interdependence (members perceiving that they sink or swim together), individual accountability (each member does his or her fair share of the work), promoting each other's success (members provide face-to-face help and support), appropriately using social skills (such as leadership, communication, and conflict resolution skills), and periodically processing how to improve the effectiveness of the group. There are three types of cooperative learning: formal cooperative learning, informal cooperative learning, and cooperative base groups. What makes cooperative learning unique is the quantity and quality of research supporting its use. When efforts are structured cooperatively, there is considerable evidence that students will achieve higher (learn more, use higher level reasoning strategies more frequently, build more complete and complex conceptual structures, and retain information learned more accurately), build more positive and supportive relationships (including relationships with diverse individuals), and develop in more healthy ways (psychological health, self-esteem, ability to manage stress and adversity).

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SECTION II

Systems
システム

Chapter 3

Cooperative Learning in Japan: History and Present Situation of Research and Implementation

Sugie Shuji

(Translated by Takeuchi Tomomi)

There are several forms of cooperative learning that have been influenced by the same Western thinkers, especially Dewey, but have gone in different directions than Western Cooperative Learning. This paper will first give a brief history of cooperative learning in Japan, will describe several types of Japanese cooperative learning, and then will give short vignettes of modern situations in which cooperative learning has been effective. The paper ends with some thoughts on the future of cooperative learning in Japanese schools.

Cooperative Learning Before and Just After World War II

Education in the Taisho Period (1912-1926)

In the Meiji era (1868-1912), a school was a place of competition where students strove against each other to make a successful career. However an international push for democracy after World War II led to a humanistic campaign in

Sugie, S. (1999). Cooperative learning in Japan: History, and present situation of research and implementation. In D. Kluge, S. McGuire, D. Johnson, & R. Johnson (Eds.), *JALT applied materials: Cooperative learning* (pp. 38-49). Tokyo: Japan Association for Language Teaching.

Japan based on the ideas of individual freedom, independence, and welfare. Under such circumstances, an attempt to create a new educational system was made, based on the independent autonomy of children. Foreign theorists F. W. Parker, J. Dewey, W. H. Kilpatrick, and H. Parkhurst introduced the principle that a school should be a fundamental institution of democracy. Therefore, lesson plans involving cooperative activities became popular.

Heiji Oikawa, who studied educational pedagogy and educational psychology in the United States, proposed what he called the "Dynamic Group Educational Method." His method attracted much attention at that time. His books (1912, 1915) described several ideas on how to make use of cooperative activities. Saito and Shimizu (1915), Sanada (1918), and Nagara (1920) also did research in education focusing on cooperation.

Education Immediately after World War II

Early in the Showa era (1926-1988), totalitarianism and militarism had a huge influence throughout Japan. School curricula required that students dedicate themselves to implicitly serve authority. During the process of democratization after Japan's defeat in 1945, it was determined that the previous educational system and curriculum needed democratic change.

At that time, one of the often-implemented methods was "Group Learning" (Suzuki, 1948), which focused on learner-centered activities in lessons. In this method, students chose a learning task depending on their interests and experiences. They then divided the task into parts. The class divided into small groups and each group took charge of one of the parts related to the topic. They worked to solve the problem cooperatively and when they solved it, they presented the findings to the class. This final step ensured that all the students shared an understanding of the subject matter. The Ministry of Education encouraged this kind of application as a democratic, fundamental means of fostering cooperative spirit and solidarity (The Ministry of Education, 1946).

Shift to Systematic Learning and Cooperative Learning

Shift to Systematic Learning

During the strengthening of the governmental trend towards conservatism in the 1950s, educational policy changed. The previous educational focus on learners' experience was criticized for students' lack of acquisition of basic knowledge. Conservatives complained that students were not taught to have a patriotic spirit or discipline. Populist reformists pointed out that the low level of basic education would not foster the learners' independent personality. Consequently "systematic learning" consisting of systematized lessons was proposed.

Cooperative Learning

In systematic learning the lesson tended to always be carried out as a whole class. However these were not the only changes being made. Many other methods such as "group dynamics" had been also introduced to Japan since 1950. A new method termed "Buzz Learning" (*BAZU gakushu*) or small group learning, combining all these new learning methods with the experience accumulated from cooperative learning, was developed. Buzz Learning made use of small group activities while learners studied in the whole class.

Cooperative Learning Based on the Systematic Learning Method

Buzz Learning was named after the buzz sessions that occurred during the lesson. Originally, Buzz Learning was a teaching technique, but Yoshihisa Shioda (1912-1988) continued to research the classroom action and studied the psychology of learning, educational evaluation theory, and social psychology to make Buzz Learning a remarkable teaching theory in Japan.

Buzz Learning emphasized that human relations were essential in education. The idea was that trustworthy relationships among students, the teacher and the students, the teachers, the teachers and the school, and the school and the local community were a starting point of a broad educational effect. It had the same theoretical foundations of cooperative learning that not only made the relationships better, but also increased learners' motivation to study.

In Buzz Learning it was important to simultaneously study what happened during the process of the lesson. It meant that the use of small groups could accelerate acquisition of knowledge and improve the learning process. Hence, human relations and learners' interest in studying would grow at the same time. Buzz Learning stressed that principles of cooperation always had to be taught in school. Competition is not included in Buzz Learning ow g to its negative effect. Shioda (1987) summarized Buzz Learning by saying, "Attention is paid not to differences but to shared points, not exclusionary logic, but coexistent logic." His research results have been reported by Shioda (1970), Shioda and Abe (1962), Shioda and Kajita (1976), Shioda and Yokota (1981), Shioda and Yonomiya (1970), and Shioda and Toyokawa City Chubu Elementary School (1965). His last book (Shioda, 1989) introduces Buzz Learning clearly.

Recent Concern with Cooperation in Education

Current Problems of Education in Japan

One may say that collectivism is one of the characteristics of Japanese culture. The meaning and actual situation of collectivism in Japan have been discussed

in many ways (Araki, 1973; Hamaguchi, 1977; Kan, 1971; Kawamoto, 1982; Minami, 1994). On the other hand, there are data that indicate that children are quite competitive (Toda, Shintsuha, McClintock, & Stetch, 1978). Recently other data show a lessening of collectivism among Japanese youth (Yamaguchi, 1991).

In the 1960s high economic growth in Japan led to dramatic changes in the social structure of the country. In education, competition among students increased, resulting in extraordinary pressure during examinations; success in these exams was instrumental in order to attain social and economic success. Even during the 1980s when economic growth stabilized, this competition did not abate.

These days, parents and educators in Japan consider that the maladjustment of children has become a large educational problem. It causes several serious problems like a psychologically-rooted refusal to attend school, bullying, and juvenile delinquency.

The number of elementary school children that refused to go to school increased from 3,679 in 1980 to 12,240 in 1994. In the case of junior high school, the number went up from 13,536 in 1980 to 51,365 in 1994 (according to Ministry of Education research). Bullying in the form of threats, teasing, exclusions from a group, violence, ignoring, and taking belongings away has become a serious social problem as well. In fact, a number of school children have committed suicide due to bullying. In 1996, bullying was reported to the Ministry of Education by 31.3% of elementary schools, 55% of junior high schools and 37.6% of high schools, resulting on an average 1.4 cases of bullying per school. In reality, however, there are probably more cases in Japanese schools that have gone unreported.

Instances of juvenile delinquency have also grown in number. Japan is at the third peak of juvenile delinquency since the 1970s. This peak is already the largest of the three since WWII. Many of the delinquencies are simple, such as stealing, but it has been spreading widely and the delinquents are getting younger. Thus there is a morality crisis in the educational system. One can assume that educational competition is a considerable factor in engendering these juvenile problems.

Concern with Cooperation as a Means of Solving Problems

Educational administration in Japan is centralized. The course of study defines the purposes and contents of learning and is set by the Ministry of Education. The curriculum has changed several times. The course of study in 1977 suggested two solutions to the educational problems: firstly, that students be given more opportunities to learn in a group environment, and secondly, that diffuse moral education be carried out in order to improve students' sense of ethics and value. These views are still current in the educational curriculum of 1989 which is dramatically different from that of 1977. Nevertheless, the 1989 curriculum is not practical enough to implement in the classroom because the underlying problems arising from the competitive educational culture remain.

When teachers encounter problems with students they generally make school rules stricter and reform the students by applying strong controlling measures. However these are not substantial solutions. What is worse, these solutions can cause different problems. The classroom teachers require and are seeking for solutions to deal with these problems.

Already there is a national Buzz Learning study organization. Their 28th national conference was held in 1996 and a total of 500 researchers, educators, and people involved with Buzz Learning participated. Teachers from elementary to high school were very interested in using cooperative principles to teach subjects, introduce computers into schools, cope with bullying, and make links with local society. The awareness of cooperative class grouping and its benefits as an educational option is becoming stronger.

Implementation and Research of Cooperative Learning Based on Buzz Learning

Buzz Learning and Classes: Lesson Model

Buzz Learning is a generic term for lesson practice activities that rely on existent trustworthy human relationships in the class to operate. It does not mean instruction following a fixed pattern. However, there are some lesson models based on previous implementations and practical research of Buzz Learning. One such model is "unit prospect learning" which is often put into practice to implement Buzz Learning. The procedure of the lesson model is as follows (Sugie, 1984):

(1) The teacher systematizes both the final learning tasks of one unit, which can be done for a few lessons, and subordinate learning tasks involved. In addition, he or she sets a learning aim to improve students' attitudes to study and personal relationships.

(2) In the first lesson, the teacher tests students on the subject matter and adequately explains the lesson plan in the unit. He or she also makes an effort to interest the students in the learning tasks. The students are made aware of the learning content and the schedule of a couple of lessons and roughly understand the purpose of the subordinate tasks they have to work on each lesson.

(3) From the second lesson, the teacher expresses clearly what the learning task is and carries out the lesson focusing on learner-centered solution processes. In each lesson, learners have to deal with the task by themselves first. They then get together in small groups to find a solution through discussion to share understanding. At that time the teacher has to point out clear group learning aims: "Make sure all in the group understand" and "Make sure each member of the group is able to explain the solution."

After the small group discussion, students present in front of the whole class what they have learned. The teacher selects interesting mistakes and gives correct answers. The students exchange their opinion within the whole class. In the end the teacher summarizes what the whole class has learned in the lesson. The teacher does not necessarily follow this procedure all the time, but has the flexibility to employ other ways like whole-class teaching and individual learning within Buzz Learning.

(4) In the last lesson of the unit, the students do the final task of the unit. The procedure is the same as in (3) and the teacher should have enough time to conclude the learning task and the task evaluation.

Main Point When Introducing Buzz Learning into a School

It would be more effective if cooperative learning is carried out with the support of the whole school. There would be more uniformity in how teachers teach and this would increase the possibility of consistent instruction to foster human relationships and improve attitudes to learning in the non-academic school activities. That is, a shared understanding of the value of cooperation helps students not to be preoccupied or confused by group learning activities.

For Buzz Learning to be put into practice and be supported by the whole school, teachers have to be specially aware of the meaning and procedure of Buzz Learning. They have to learn Buzz Learning from several manuals in special study meetings and need to change or adjust their previous fixed ideas of teaching to a more flexible view of teaching; from teaching to accept competition to cooperative teaching; from teaching to teach something to teaching to facilitate learning.

For students, particularly freshmen, the school should provide a manual of Buzz Learning and provide students with an opportunity to learn the procedure in the beginning of the year. This also gives new teachers an important opportunity to learn Buzz Learning. The teachers and the students need to share their understanding and create their own cooperative learning. This step is significant in the implementation of Buzz Learning.

A Case Study of Buzz Unit Prospect Learning

The awareness of unit purposes and tasks helps students acquire what they are expected to learn about the subject matter even though the teacher's explanation in the first lesson might take time to understand. Shioda, Nakano, and Sugie (1974), Shioda, Sugie, Shikanai, Fujita, Nakajima, and Yoshida (1975), and Ishida (1980) experientially found that understanding the purposes and tasks, the basic principles of "unit prospect learning," helps students' learning. Action research (Sugie & Ito 1983, 1988, 1990, 1993; Sugie, Kajita, & the Kasugai

City Arithmetic Study Club, 1989) and some case studies of buzz unit prospect learning have been reported. (Kasugai City Arithmetic Study Club 1988, 1989, 1990a, 1990b; Sugie, 1993).

Research suggests several things. Clarifying learning tasks means clarifying group tasks so that the important condition of cooperation is achieved. It is interesting to note that "slower" school children are more eager to cooperatively learn than the "advanced" children. They study at home more spontaneously than previously. Awareness of learning aims and of the purpose of the current unit in the context of the whole course is a factor to motivate students and to aid in understanding. Providing the slower students with an opportunity to know the buzz unit prospect can be useful to get them to acquire learning skills.

Language Education and Buzz Learning

There have been two test cases of Buzz Learning in English classes. In the first case, Inoue (1996; see also in this volume), who taught in a junior high school that had many delinquency-related problems, applied the basic principles of Buzz Learning for demotivated students. The students originally did not participate in the class positively. Their basic English ability was quite low. He attempted to motivate the students and make an academic atmosphere through the application of the principles of Buzz Learning.

The demotivated students did not speak, read, write, or express themselves. There was a lack of an academic environment conducive to the learning of English. However, this could be considered a natural response when the students do not trust the teachers. Inoue applied the fundamental principles of Buzz Learning during class; he always praised anyone that responded well and took care of each of the students. That is, he facilitated learning and tried to made a great effort to establish trust. His attempt worked not linearly, but gradually. The actual technique he used in the classes was pair work rapid reading with the aim that both participants in the pair achieved a level he set.

The second case, by Kachi (1996) in a junior high school, argued the usage of the scramble technique in the English class. The technique required learners to find a partner in the classroom for a dialogue. It operated in the same way as "free buzz" (created by Ichikawa, 1987), which does not employ fixed groups. The students change partners to talk about the given topic by using the phrase they have just learned. Some students may speak to only their friend or to another student of the same gender. Kachi made a checking card to collect the signatures of partners and gave them scores for their interactions; They could get higher scores depending on to whom they spoke. This way they had many opportunities to talk with many classmates in English and hence learn through interacting. He reported that when using this method there are still uncooperative students, but the class has become more animated.

In both cases, cooperative support of human relationships in out-of-subject activities was helpful in doing free buzz learning. Kachi also argued that the reason he applied Buzz Learning was simply because his school had a delinquency problem.

Expanding Applications of Buzz Learning

Dealing with Problems in Education through Contact with the Local Community
The application of cooperative guidance and learning would be a useful means to construct educational solidarity within local communities as well as within schools. Nagai and Sugie (1995) showed a successful outcome carried out by a cooperative community, both within and outside a junior high school in Himeji where the incidence of delinquency had been progressively increasing. The teachers had meetings with parents to discuss school problems and created opportunities of cooperative learning at the local level. Human relations based on trust with local support (a community willing to cooperate) led to a more positive result for overcoming delinquency. Funakoshi and Sugie (1997) reported a similar result of cooperative learning in a junior high school in Niigata.

Cooperative learning has also been used on an island in Hiroshima conducted with local community support (Hiroshima Prefecture, Toyo High School *Kyoikusuishin Kyougikai*, 1980). They tried to solve problems of ***Buraku*** discrimination, an underclass which is a vestige of the class system established in the Edo era, as well as to improve learning (Ochi, 1978). Using local resources brings the students to realize the value of their hometown.

Trustworthy human relationships, in addition to the support of the whole school coupled with local community involvement, provide a more effective mechanism for Buzz Learning. Such relationships start from the school.

Dealing with New Demands in Education in Response to the Times
In Japan there are several envisaged future needs in terms of internationalization, the information society, lifelong education, environmental studies, and other major social issues. What can be done to address them? In general, for instance, more English classes can be created for internationalization purposes as well as implementing computer class instruction for the emerging information society. In addition to the need to enrich the learning context, it is also suggested that children should start learning at a younger age. However such curriculum revolution is just a surface change to lead to a fruitful future for children.

International understanding starts with understanding human nature. If one cannot communicate with friends nearby, it is simply impossible to have international relationships. Nanjo Junior High School in Kasugai City (1988) has a unique curriculum consisting of buzz cooperative learning as well as an ex-

change program with Canada to complement an English course. They also have lessons for environmental education to deepen understanding through cooperative interaction (Kasugai City Junior High School, 1994, 1995).

Increasing concerns in regards to the use of computers in cooperative learning should be mentioned. Educational use of computers in Japan is so far only for information processing like data collection and administration. It is considered primarily as a means of personal study, usage, and guidance, and thus is an unexploited tool for cooperative learning. Despite this view, computers have started to be used for the purpose of cooperative learning.

Educational Future of Cooperative Learning in Japan

Education in Japan has been criticized since the 1980s regarding fostering students as individuals because many educational systems disregard individual differences due to relatively large class sizes. A course of study produced in 1989 by the Ministry of Education underscored the teaching needs of individuals. Due to this, the study of instructional guidance (instruction strategies) and practical concern focused only on personal guidance.

However, can students' individuality grow only through personal guidance? Of course, students sometimes need personal guidance, but too much emphasis may lead to the erroneous impression that personal guidance aims at creating differences between students. It is in the human nature that people share where the foundation of individuality lies. We as teachers cannot foster individuality. All we can do is just facilitate a sound and vigorous educational environment and to wait for individuality to grow. Cooperative learning, supported by human trust, has brought positive educational outcomes even in countries that have cultural diversity. Therefore the theory of cooperative learning must be essential in the process of learning by human beings. Using cooperation that is a part of human nature can lead to an environment where children can develop their individuality.

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Chapter 4

Cooperative Attending Skills Training for ESL Students

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In learning a second language an important threshold has been crossed when authentic, extended communication with native speakers becomes possible. At that point, the learner is able to take a proactive role in interactions, gaining at least some real control over the topic, course, and purpose of a conversation. Training in attending skills (Ivey, Normington, Miller, Morril, & Hasse, 1968), set in a cooperative learning group process (Slavin, 1983), can help ESL students get to that level quickly and effectively.

The cooperative learning model has provided a flexible and principled basis for group teaching and learning (Johnson, 1989; Johnson & Holubec, 1991; Kagan, 1993; Slavin, 1983). This chapter outlines a Cooperative Attending Skills Training (CAST) process for ESL students based on Acton (1984) and other ESL-oriented cooperative models (Acton & Cope, 1978, 1980, 1983; High, 1993; Nunan, 1992; McGuire, 1992). A key feature of this cooperative learning adaptation of attending skills training was inspired by the frustration of trying to teach English conversation skills to Japanese college freshmen.

Acton, W. & Cope, C. (1999). Cooperative attending skills training for ESL students. In D. Kluge, S. McGuire, D. Johnson, & R. Johnson (Eds.), *JALT applied materials: Cooperative learning* (pp. 50-66). Tokyo: Japan Association for Language Teaching.

The model in Acton (1984) was effective with international students and foreign professionals in the United States. When it was first tried with Japanese college freshmen in Japan, it simply did not work. For starters, it seemed almost impossible to get those students to consistently come up with topics worth attending to, that is, topics that were inherently interesting for them to talk about and listen to—a sine qua non of attending skills work. As compared with international students in the U.S., for example, these Japanese students' lives and experiences prior to coming to college appeared incredibly uniform: same tastes, same high school clubs, same hobbies. They had not traveled much; most of them had time for little more than studying and their part-time jobs. There seemed to be almost nothing new for them to talk about.

Through careful attention to topic selection, however, and a cooperatively based balancing of role and responsibility within conversation groups, this CAST framework adds considerably to the applicability of attending skills training. In its present form, the CAST system can be used in virtually any second language learning program.

Microtraining and Attending Skills

In the mid-1960s Ivey and associates in counseling psychology (e.g., Ivey et al., 1968; Ivey & Authier, 1978) developed an approach to counselor training that included "attending skills," the process of keeping an interview or intimate conversation going. To paraphrase Ivey, good attending is basically keeping someone else talking about a topic of relevance and importance to both parties involved. It requires that the Attender (interviewer) be interested in the topic and be willing to provide verbal and nonverbal feedback in a way that assists the other person in telling his or her story. It is a most genuine kind of empathy: focused on the other person's ideas, helping him or her communicate them.

The microtraining paradigm (Ivey, 1971), which includes attending skills training, has since proven to be highly successful and adaptable. When incorporated into a cooperative learning group format, a microtraining approach to attending skills makes it possible to teach these essential strategies of English conversation to even false-beginner level second language learners (see Acton, 1984).

Acton (1984) reported on an initial attempt to develop such a framework, without reference to a more formal, cooperative learning model. In that process, many of the techniques, adapted from microtraining systems (Ivey & Authier, 1978; Ivey & Gluckstern, 1974) were tested and expanded. That approach (Acton & Cope, 1978; Acton, 1984) was, at least in spirit, cooperative. The group format used in that system of attending skills training (Acton, 1984) provided a good basis for other tasks and projects, of

course, but at the time (the early 1980s) the value of cooperative grouping was not generally recognized.

Times have changed. Group work and group learning in the cooperative paradigm are now widely accepted in North America, Europe, and elsewhere (see McGuire, 1992). For instructors and students accustomed to cooperative group processes what follows not only will be easy to understand but should also reveal the simplicity and genius of Ivey's early work.

The Problem: Learning to Converse in a Second Language

Working with native speakers of English, attempting to help them become better Attenders, is difficult enough. Emotional and personality barriers to effective listening and responding to another in conversation can be insurmountable for some (Guiora, 1972). With second language learners, not only are there those issues to contend with, there are also important cultural differences in attending style and function (Ivey, Bradford-Ivey, & Simetz-Morgan, 1995)—in addition to language-specific vocabulary and structures—which must be addressed.

Learning how to converse, as opposed to simply speaking, should be a top priority in second language teaching methods. As any instructor who works with beginning language learners will attest, it is one thing to get them to speak English in public, that is, say words, sing songs, read texts aloud, respond to drills, do role plays; it is quite another to bring them to the point where they feel confident or daring enough to communicate outside of a fixed script or simple question-and-answer format. The CAST model is designed to put students in a situation where they not only can carry on a meaningful and interesting conversation but can also continue to learn how to attend more effectively.

Generating good conversation practice in a classroom, like the ability to listen well to others, is not a skill that many possess naturally. Conducting effective conversation practice takes preparation, some explicit understanding of the conversational conventions and pragmatics of English, an ability to manage people, and, most importantly, it requires a group process format that allows students to observe, monitor, and assist each other in meaningful and productive ways. The CAST approach to conversation teaching ensures that all members of the group actively converse and learn, a fundamental assumption of cooperative learning models.

Parameters of Cooperative Learning

To describe the CAST system and to show how consistent it is with cooperative learning frameworks, we have reordered and refocused slightly some of Johnson and Johnson's terms (the order of presentation here or in Johnson & Johnson 1994 does not imply any relative importance or hierarchy of the closely interre-

lated categories): face-to-face interaction, social skills and communication strategies, positive interdependence, group processing and management, and individual accountability.

Face-to-face Interaction: Attending

In the Ivey et al. (1968) attending training system, counselors were introduced to three deceptively simple ideas or strategies: using open-ended questions and comments, using varied eye contact, and maintaining a relaxed posture. Microtraining, by definition, entails isolating, teaching, and practicing skills. In very focused interview-like sessions, the verbal and nonverbal attending responses can be taught and refined. In that sense, a native English speaking counselor-trainee could effectively practice the three skills or behaviors of attending (verbal following, appropriate eye patterning, and relaxed posture) with other counselor trainees.

Trainees may observe videotaped models or get various kinds of feedback on their performance, looking particularly at those junctures where the topic of conversation may have gotten sidetracked and trying to decide what they should have said instead. In other words, with native speakers, especially counselors-in-training, the basic process is learning how to select and concentrate on the most effective phrase or nonverbal behavior. Within a few hours, most native speakers of the language are able to demonstrate improved control of verbal following, and satisfactory eye contact patterns, and stay reasonably relaxed in doing it.

Social Skills and Communication Strategies

As suggested earlier, in English language teaching methodology there are many techniques aimed at helping learners acquire the vocabulary and strategies of attending in English (e.g., Savignon, 1976; Oxford, 1990; Brown, 1991; Schmidt, 1992; Pica, 1994).

The description that follows of the strategies of attending (as used in CAST) is not designed to be an exhaustive description of how we attend in English. It is a learner-tailored framework that can help students remember useful expressions and improve their skill of attending (see Bialystok, 1990). Recall that attending, as conceptualized in CAST, is not a conversational role based on turntaking (see Wiemann & Knapp, 1975), but rather a posture that we sometimes assume during conversation to consciously assist another person in telling a good story.

Teaching these strategies to second language learners can be approached either deductively or inductively. It does not seem to matter which way it is done, as long as learners ultimately experience attending both as focused, explicit learning of effective phrases and a higher-level discovery of strategies. In a more explicit, deductive method, Attenders might initially be instructed to try to use one or more structures only, such as wh- questions to keep a conversation going. At a more

functional level, learners can be instructed to focus on asking for clarification or elaboration as much as possible. The same thing can also be accomplished more inductively by getting learners to try to keep their conversation partner talking any way they can, verbal or nonverbal. Then, after the fact, various techniques (elaborated below) can be used to focus on what worked and what didn't.

The basic CAST strategies are best understood by students as consisting of three categories: structures, functions, and nonverbal behaviors (eye contact and posture).

Verbal following strategies: Structures. In conversation, any one of the following structures (or others, of course) may evoke or require a long answer from the other person (the preliminary definition of effective attending given by Ivey and used in CAST). With less proficient students, however, intonation and wh- question-based responses are not only easier but will almost always get more out of the other person. (See the Appendix for a model CAST curriculum.) The verbal following structures/categories and some examples of each are listed below in terms of general effectiveness and ease of application in teaching.

A. Intonation: Questions repeating a word from the Talker's last turn, and probably mapping on rising intonation.

B. Wh- questions
   What . . . ?
   Where . . . ?
   When . . . ?

C. Short statements
   That's interesting.
   I see.
   Oh, I didn't know that.

D. Commands
   Tell me about . . .
   Go on, please.
   Give me your thoughts on . . .

E. Yes/no questions
   Did you have fun?
   Did you like it?

Those five forms or at least their labels can be taught explicitly if necessary. In general, we would assume that by the time students are ready to work with the CAST system they would have at least been introduced to that metalanguage and have some basic, productive control over those grammatical categories.

(Note: In the initial phases of training, yes/no questions should be somewhat discouraged. If at the beginning learners rely heavily on asking such questions, it either allows the other person too easy an answer—perhaps only one word—or it requires a possibly overly complex answer following the simple *yes* or *no*.)

Verbal following strategies: Functions. In the CAST framework there are three verbal following functions: continuance, clarification, and elaboration. At the outset the first two functions, continuance and clarification are emphasized more than the third (elaboration) because any time we, as Attender, ask someone to elaborate, we may well be changing the focus of the story in a way that the other person had not intended or linguistically is not able to sustain. When we analyze breakdowns in attending in ESL classes, a frequent cause is attempted elaboration or shifting of a topic.

In the listing below each of the three basic functions is broken down into three or four subcategories with some examples for each. The subcategories are of little value except to more advanced students in CAST work, but they do provide a useful framework for those instructors less familiar with discourse and conversational analysis terms. (The basic framework is taken from Acton, 1984.)

A. Continuance: Just keeping the topic going, trying to keep the other person on track while not usurping control of the conversation):

1. Minimal encouragers
   I see.
   Uh-huh.
   Go on.
   Yeah.
   And then . . .
   Tell me more.
2. Empathy/ mind reading/small world
   I know just what you mean.
   That must have been . . .
   That sounds exciting.
3. Concord/agreement/understanding
   I thought so.
   You can say that again.
   I can see why.
   You bet!
4. Surprise/shock/disbelief
   Are you kidding?
   Good grief!
   That's impossible!

B. Clarification (related to lack of understanding)
   1. Clarification of utterance, turn, or element
      Huh? I don't follow you.
      What do you mean?
      Pardon me.
   2. Topic repair
      Where were we?
      Before you said that . . .
      I'm not following that.
   3. Summary or paraphrase
      So it was . . .
      Are you saying . . .
      In other words . . .

C. Elaboration (participating actively in the development of the topic)
   1. Opinion/impression
      Are they all like that?
      I hear she is . . .
      What do you think of that?
      How did that happen?
   2. Prediction/inference
      What would happen if . . .
      What did you expect?
   3. Probing/looking for specifics
      In what way?
      What happened next?
      How did X happen?
   4. Justification/challenge
      Do you really think that . . .
      How come?
      Prove it.
      You said X, but Y.
      Where did you get that?

Eye contact and relaxed posture. Of the two nonverbal components of Ivey's framework, relaxed posture is generally achievable with any group. Regardless how large the group—and CAST can be done effectively in classes of fifty students or more—posture is easy for the instructor to monitor from anywhere in the room. As each group is conducting its conversation, there should be at least one person (the one telling the story) whose responsibility is to look and stay relaxed.

In CAST groups of ESL learners, however, in part because of the number of tasks being carried out simultaneously and the short duration of the actual conversations, *and in deference to the different cultural norms of students,* eye contact is not normally discussed or evaluated unless something problematic arises. In CAST work, students are generally not encouraged to comment on the nonverbal behavior (other than certain observations relating to relaxed posture) of other students. The instructor may, on occasion, however, find it necessary to comment to the class as a whole on nonverbal concerns, other than relaxed posture.

Positive Interdependence: CAST Roles

Whil Ivey's basic training setting is a counseling room with a counselor-in-training and a client, the CAST system is a relatively straightforward cooperative learning group process. In CAST there are ideally four to six distinct, yet interdependent, roles: Talker, Attender, one or two Observers, and one Chief. (Some of these roles can be combined.) The actual group work entails a series of short cooperative conversations of four to five minutes followed by a 10 to 15 minute discussion/analysis of those conversations, first by the group itself and then in an instructor-centered full-class discussion. The roles and responsibilities are as follows:

Talker. The Talker's basic responsibilities are (a) to provide a good topic (see discussion of topic criteria below) and (b) to stay relaxed. Because the conversation will rarely last longer than four to five minutes, the Talker must not talk nonstop. (In most cases, that is not a problem!) The reason for that is that the primary focus of CAST work is on what the Attender does (see next role below)—not the content of what the Talker is saying. In other words, a relatively short conversation can provide an adequate number of opportunities for the Talker to get across a good story and for the other roles to participate appropriately.

In addition to staying relaxed, another responsibility of the Talker is to attempt to speak in rhythm groups, or phrasal groups. This has several potential benefits: (a) it allows the Attender and others sufficient processing time to grasp what is being said; (b) it provides the Attender more opportunities to comment or ask appropriate questions and use back-channeling devices (e.g., *uh-huh, I see, oh, hmmm*), and (c) it affords the Talker more time to think of what to say next. Finally, (d) this style of speaking English in controlled situations, in rhythm or phrasal groups, is a well-established technique in contemporary pronunciation teaching (see Gilbert, 1995; Grant, 1994).

Attender. Despite the fact that research in several disciplines has established that the concept of attending is culturally universal (although the specific behaviors may differ greatly by culture), assuming the role of Attender can be difficult for many. Ivey and Gluckstern (1974, p. 2) noted that, "Very few people in our society are effective listeners; it seems sad that we must teach people to

listen, but it is a necessary skill which our culture has not taught many of us." What Ivey and associates have ably demonstrated over the years is that not only can anyone become a better Attender, but that even a small amount of improvement in attending skill can have immediate, even dramatic, results.

The Attender's role is to help the Talker create a good story. That is done by staying with the Talker's topic and train of thought, using short responses, and not interrupting except for necessary clarification or explanation. It is amazing how well even low-level ESL students can function in conversation once they have learned key attending strategies and have internalized the rhythm of a few key English-style turn taking conventions.

Observer-1. The primary responsibility of Observer-1 is to write down expressions used by the Attender that resulted in effective attending, defined as forcing longer, more interesting responses by the Talker. Here the "game" of CAST is most focused. Whereas the Talkers do their best to respond in relatively short utterances or turns, the Attenders, likewise, do their utmost to come up with comments or questions that will require longer, more elaborate responses from the Talker. Observer-1 is instructed to try to ignore the content of what the Talker is saying, and only to note whether the Talker was forced into something more than a one-word answer and then write down what it was the Attender said that set that up. Some questions can, indeed, be answered with one word, but the Talker is instructed not to be unduly evasive.

It is the very notion of cooperation here that soon motivates the group. The idea is to work together to tell a good story, one that is a model of cooperative dialogue in which the Attender makes a contribution as audience, helping to focus and develop the narrative. With lower-proficiency level classes, it may be necessary to have two people handling the job of Observer-1. Once the conversation is concluded, Observers report their "data" either to the Chief of their group (see "Chief" role described below) or to the instructor, depending on the ability or proficiency of students.

Observer-2. Observer-2's role will vary depending on language proficiency and class size. As noted in "Observer-1" above, it may be useful to have two Observers focusing their attention on the speech of the Attender. Observer-2 could also, if necessary, give the Attender some help in coming up with responses to the Talker's contributions. With intermediate-level classes, Observer-2 could also take notes on aspects of the speech of the Talker, such as the number of rhythm groups per turn, or the length of rhythm groups, or possibly aspects of topic development. During the post conversation discussion period, an Observer-2 could, alternatively, be asked to summarize briefly the story or to comment on specifics of form such as pauses or sentence length.

Observer-3. Observer-3 can function as Observer of the Attender, Observer of the Talker, or as an Attender's assistant.

Chief. The group Chief can have several jobs: time keeper, message person, recorder, and manager. Since everyone except the Chief may change jobs after each post-conversation discussion, he or she also must keep track of who has had which role during the session. Typically, one conversation/discussion requires about 20 minutes. If there are only three or four students (the minimum), the Chief may have to do double duty as Talker, Attender, Observer-1 or Observer-2.

Group Processing and Management

The CAST framework is based on a series of 20-minute rounds. A round is composed of a brief (3 to 5 minute) conversation, followed by a discussion of about 15 minutes. In a 50-minute class, for example, two rounds can be done easily. At the beginning, a 3-minute conversation is adequate. To start a round, the Talker might say something like, "Let me tell you about X." While the Talker and Attender work on telling the story, the Observers note effective attending. Even with more advanced students, the conversations should go no longer than 4 to 5 minutes. As students' skills improve and as they begin to offer more interesting topics it becomes more and more difficult to stop those conversations!

There are a number of ways a round may be started. In addition to the "Let me tell you about . . . " frame, the Talker could say something like, "Have you heard that . . . " or simply "I have X" or "I did X." The round can also be initiated by the Attender with "Tell me about . . . " In that case, the Talker would have told the Attender in advance what the topic is. (See below for further discussion of the nature of the topics used in the rounds.)

Once the round begins and the Talker is talking, the Attender is attending, the Observers are either taking notes or helping out, and the Chief is keeping track of the time, the instructor should walk around from group to group helping out where necessary and taking mental (or written) notes on effective and problematic behaviors. When the round is over (in 3 to 5 minutes), the instructor then returns to the blackboard and conducts the follow up.

In the 15-minute follow-up to the round, a number of things can take place, again depending on the level of the class. Ideally, the group itself should first quickly review the Observer's notes on effective expressions. In a 3-minute round an Observer may write down as many as a dozen expressions that are considered at the time to be effective attending. The Chief or an Observer passes on this data to the instructor by reading the note aloud or passing it on in written form. Alternatively, the instructor can go to each Observer, group-by-group, and ask for exact-word examples of effective attending. After an Observer (or Chief) presents an example to the class, the instructor can respond in a number of ways:

1) Write the example on the board as given and then repair it as necessary. That repair may include grammar or an alternate way of expressing the same idea.
2) In the case where that example has been given previously by an earlier group or during an earlier round, the instructor can request a new example, or provide a new token that would accomplish the same purpose.
3) Write the example as given and then ask the group for an alternate way of saying the same thing, of expressing the same meaning.
4) Classify or comment on the strategy used. (In later rounds, it can be effective for the strategy to be identified either by the student or instructor.)
5) Ask the Observer what the Talker said or did in response to the Attender's comment or question.
6) Request that the example provided by the Observer be either expanded to sentence length or reduced down from sentence length to conversational length, that is, given as one or two words. (For the Japanese Attender, who by training will try to form every question in perfect grammar, just the order to use no complete sentences can be very effective and liberating.)
7) Request exact words used. It is difficult even for native speakers to get accustomed to listening for the exact words of the Attender.
8) Set up the next round. In addition to reminding the Chief who should be Talker, Attender, and Observers for the next round, the instructor may offer general comments on any aspect of the round, including nonverbal behavior of any one involved. The instructor may also provide the Attenders with a target strategy for the next round. For example, Attenders may be instructed to attempt more responses that are basically repetitions of a word or phrase from the Talker's speech—with rising intonation added.
9) Build up a database of expressions used that the students should practice. That corpus can then later be presented in various formats.

Individual Accountability: Student Evaluation

As in any cooperative system, student learning and achievement can be assessed in a number of ways. The very nature of the CAST groups makes the performance of every member quite transparent throughout the process. For example, each member must prepare topics for the day's session, take notes of effective attending (as Observer), and demonstrate understanding of attending strategies in interacting with the Talker. Just by collecting the topic list assigned as homework and checking over the notes that students take during the session, it will be very clear who is studying and learning—and who is not.

There are several methods for testing competence and improvement in attending. Perhaps the most effective, if time permits, is to observe each student

in each role. That can be done by having two students attend in a more isolated test setting. It is relatively easy to devise a checklist rating system for that purpose. If that type of evaluation is not feasible (possibly due to time constraints), students can be tested somewhat more indirectly by having them listen to attending and then respond to questions of various kinds, or by being required to write dialogues that demonstrate their understanding of good attending. Alternatively, cloze-like passages can be created to require students to fill in the blanks with attending expressions or probable responses.

An essay on attending is a good vehicle for assessing understanding of the principles involved and for getting students to focus on the interpersonal aspects of being an Attender. The essay assignment could be something like: Describe someone in your experience who is a great Attender. Here are a few phrases from one class (Acton, 1984, p. 33):

did not talk much	is gentle
concentrates on me	shows agreement often
develop topic together	encouraging questions
listens to me	we forget about the time
looks like me	we have a close relationship
knows when to stop talking	is honest

Mothers, fathers, friends, grandparents, and significant others are often seen as great Attenders; the essays are almost always touching and very sincere.

Topic Preparation and Selection

The choice of topic, as stated earlier, is crucial to the success of attending training. Students are told that any topic they choose must have three characteristics. It must be secret, specific, and interesting. "Secret" means that only the Talker knows about it. It must be new information, at least to the Attender. Two students in the same class can use a similar topic as long as they are not members of the same group that day. The characteristic "specific" is more problematic. The best topics are usually events, or people. General topics such as places or "ideas" can be more difficult for the Attender to deal with. To ensure that topics are appropriate, students are told to come to class with a list of five possible topics for their attending session for that day. They will need at least one good topic. (Topics are generally noted just simply as phrases or words, not as complete sentences—see suggestive list below.)

Before the attending rounds begin, the instructor checks every student's list for acceptable, interesting topics. If none of the topics prepared as homework are appropriate, the student either is given suggestions as to how to sharpen the topics or is assisted by the group or the instructor in coming up with the re-

quired topics. The instructor may comment to the class about good topics students will be using that day, or may suggest other topics to the class to give students more possibilities for later. In addition, it may be helpful to give students a list of good topics for them to study as homework. In practice, it sometimes takes three or four sessions before students are consistently coming up with acceptable topics.

As mentioned earlier, in working with Japanese students, topic-selection training was at first difficult. They all seemed to have seen the same movies, read the same books, gone to the same places. With persistent, patient monitoring of their proposed topics by the instructor, they gradually began to focus on "personal" events such as accidents or parties or vacations or unusual people they knew. From that point on, the quality of conversations improved. Here are a few examples of some of the more stimulating topics from a recent CAST 8-week curriculum (a total of about 8 hours, roughly one hour per week).

My dog's adventure
My stupid dog's adventure
A strange lady (when I was 10 years old)
Our basketball team
My first love
I was hit by a car.
My father was mistaken robber. [sic]
My friend tricked on me. [sic]
My song
Day and night mixed up
Losing a lot of blood
My hometown [a strange place]
About Sanbongo's [where she lives]
Snake information
Sunburnt
My brother's car repair
Goodbye, my girlfriend!
My eyebrow
Speed over [sic]
My dog (he dead) [sic]
Drinking party
Attempt to be in a diet [sic]
Welcome, new baby!
Cream soda [a great story, in fact!]
On my way back to my home
Funny teacher in a high school

> My brother had traffic accident and almost drowned in the sea in same day. [sic]
> One of my high school's festivals

These are the kind of topics that naturally generate interest. With a little forethought, any student can come up with at least one or two effective stories per week. The key to successfully developing consistently good topics—and attending—is to work with students closely on the topic they will introduce. The time required in checking every topic for a session and in insuring that every student has an engaging and interesting topic is worth the effort. Students (and teachers) inevitably discover that there are some very interesting people in the class who have done many interesting things.

Conclusion

If it is necessary to convince students or colleagues of the value of being a good Attender, begin with this set of observations from Acton (1984, p. 22) based on Ivey & Authier (1978):

> Attending gives important feedback to the other person as to how the message is being received. Attending indicates that the listener is interested in what is being said. Attending is very reinforcing to the other person. It makes him or her feel good and feel more like talking. Attending enables one to get more information as well as more accurate information, both by learning to listen carefully and by being able to get experts to talk at length about their areas of expertise. Ultimately (and ironically) attending skills should help the language learners get more practice speaking [cf. Kleinemann, 1983]—because people will just enjoy talking with them!

The CAST framework makes attending training possible and potentially very effective with second language learners. Class size is almost irrelevant; language proficiency is not much of an issue either. Attending is a great survival tool for language learners. Once students learn it, most can keep almost anybody talking about almost anything.

One might think that for ESL beginners, especially, just being able to attend, to keep somebody talking, would be a skill that when employed could easily come off as being artificial, mechanical, or manipulative. It may, of course. But recall that in CAST, effective attending is always tied to topic. Without first-class topics at the ready, the class session cannot even begin. It also becomes evident to everyone that there can be no real communication without genuine interest and that faking it can be much more problematic than saying nothing. In the context of CAST lessons, to attend without caring or to pretend to attend to a

boring story, is almost unthinkable and should not be allowed to happen in the first place. We can only hope that an understanding that good conversation depends on good intent carries beyond the classroom. To paraphrase H.L. Mencken: There are no *bad* stories, only boring ones.

A cooperative group at its best assumes relationships among members based on trust and caring. Those relationships come about, in part, because students have learned how to work well together as a team. The team spirit develops best when the group is able to successfully complete a well-conceived, challenging project.

In CAST, what starts out as a relatively controlled, skill-focused exercise gradually evolves into a meaningful, rewarding, and quite profitable group experience. Since students are required from the outset to talk with teammates about topics that are not only inherently interesting but personal as well, relationships based on understanding and genuine sharing are engendered. They get to know each other first as people with interesting stories to tell; and in the process, they learn how to better converse in English. It is something that every cooperative learning group ought to attend to.

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Appendix

Model Cooperative Attending Skills Training Curriculum

Hour 1 - *Introduction to Attending; practice selecting good topics*

A. Model attending with students. (Instructor as Talker or Attender, student or students as Attender or Talker, depending on the general level of the class.) It is often a good idea to audiotape this initial interaction so it can be replayed and analyzed as you point out appropriate examples.
B. Write effective attending expressions on the board or flipchart. Perhaps add to the list a few other examples that function in the same way.
C. Do one or more additional "class-centered" rounds, citing more examples. (Have students copy the examples in their notebooks, etc.)
D. Homework assignment: Bring 5 good "Talker/attending" topics to next class

Hour 2 - *Introduction to the cooperative group responsibilities*

A. Check topic homework carefully, noting with each student the two most appropriate for the day's work.
B. Outline roles on the board in very simple terms.
C. Do another model round (perhaps, with half of class as Attender, half of class as Observer, and instructor as Talker).
D. Assign groups.
E. Do 2 or 3 initial rounds (possibly using rising intonation on one of the final elements of Talker's sentences as a single attending strategy focus.)
F. Homework: topics.

Hours 3 - 6 - *CAST rounds*

A. Check topics (identifying the two best).
B. Assign groups.
C. Do 3-4 rounds.
D. Homework: topics and (possibly) some attending practice with friends or family. (Even discussions or essays based on attending done in the students' native languages can be fruitful.)

Hours 7 and 8 - *Focus on CAST strategies*

After each round, identify the strategies used. (For other instructor options, see above.)

Chapter 5

Implementing Cooperative Learning at a Language School

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In 1989, Lee wrote that English education was approaching a national obsession as revealed in both the public and private sectors, and this phenomenon still remains in Japanese society. In the public sector, the Ministry of Education has invited more than 4,000 Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) to public schools (Scholefield, 1996).

In the private sector, there are more than 20,000 *eikaiwa* [English conversation] classrooms. The most important goal for these private language schools is to provide an efficient language curriculum in which the students can have ample opportunities to improve their communicative and interactive skills. The majority of students who study at such schools are university students and high school students who are not content with large-sized classrooms or the traditional teaching approach of *yakudoku* [translation tasks] at their home schools. Classroom sizes in private language schools are varied; however, small-sized classrooms (8-10 students) at private language schools are always attractive to the customers and bring business success to them.

Lee, S. (1999). Implementating cooperative learning at a language school. In D. Kluge, S. McGuire, D. Johnson, & R. Johnson (Eds.), *JALT applied materials: Cooperative learning* (pp. 67-79). Tokyo: Japan Association for Language Teaching.

Even though both students and teachers at such language schools highly expect communicative and interactive activities in the classrooms, Japanese students are noted to be silent in the classrooms, and this inactive attitude deprives the students of the opportunity to develop oral language skills (Bannai, 1981; Sato, 1982; Tomizawa, 1974). What are the causes of this attitudinal problem of Japanese learners? It is often stated that lack of communication skills and inadequate learning experiences based on the traditional translation method in Japan seems to be the main causes of students' inactive attitude and lack of competence in English production (Hino, 1988; Kawasumi, 1975; Tazaki, 1978; Tajima, 1978). Researchers argue that if students were taught English as a medium of communication in a more effective manner, their communication skills might be enhanced. However, it is important to judge whether students are fully ready to be given such empowerment. It is unlikely that all success stories in the English as a Second Language (ESL) contexts can be easily copied or transferred into an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context, particularly in the English classrooms in Japan.

Background of the School

The Importance of Needs Analyses

The school chosen for the study reported here is a medium-sized private language school with 4,000 students enrolled as part-time students. The largest population among the students at the school consists of false beginners (87.8%), who have never studied English communicatively; it was assumed that they have some foundation in basic grammar and vocabulary through the minimum of six years of English education. The majority of the students are university and high school students (75%), and male (67.5%), and their reason for learning English is that they believe the skill will be beneficial for their future careers (67%). The majority of the students (95%) desire to improve their communicative skills of English at this institute mainly because they think that their home schools don't provide an efficient curriculum to improve these skills.

The classes are arranged by reservation; students have to reserve a class each time. Under this reservation system, students have a different teacher and study with different students in each class. Compared to a fixed schedule, this reservation system attracts busy students so that many language schools use this flexible system.

A needs analysis at this institute is conducted at least every three months using such techniques as interviews, questionnaires, and direct observations of students' performance on an oral test which is used both as a placement test and as a diagnostic test. These frequent needs analyses generate a large quan-

tity and a wide variety of data. Such information provides a useful starting point for developing or evaluating a language program. It is believed that the determination of students' needs is an ongoing process.

A 10-minute long interview is given to all the new students when they enter the institute, mainly to find out how they perceive the learning of English. The questions given to them are open-ended questions and the interviewers fill in a diagnostic form for each student The questions are asked in Japanese during the interview and asked in a random order to extract the new students' perceptions as much as possible.

Valuable information was obtained from the records and the results of interviews. The following translated response represents the perceptions of most of the beginning level students. Translation of a verbatim account have been used below in order to retain the original tone of the interview.

> Beginning level student (33 year old housewife):
>
> I get so nervous when I speak English particularly with a native speaker. I wish I could talk to them more comfortably. My English ability is not so bad because English was my favorite subject and English was my major at the university. But when it comes to communication with foreigners in English, it is a different story. I sweat a lot and my heart beats faster when I speak English. I really want to change my attitude, so I chose to come to this school.

The students' perceptions and attitudes toward learning English based on this data were reported to the school authority by the staff who conducted the interviews. The report was summarized as follows:

1. Students are not self-directed learners. They are passive learners and English was learned only for passing examinations and tests.
2. They are not responsible learners. They are not aware of any efficient study skills.
3. Their motivation to learn communicative English is rather high, but they feel strong anxiety about communicating in English.
4. They believe that their basic knowledge is poor and they are not confident in their own potential ability to learn English.
5. They have been disappointed with the English education they received so far.

Nunan (1988) stated that adult learners are profoundly influenced by past learning experiences, present concerns, and future prospects. He found that they are less interested in learning for learning's sake than in learning to achieve some immediate or not too distant life goal. Combining the results of the needs

analysis with Nunan's observation, the following immediate objectives were set in the new curriculum and they were stated in the teachers' manual:

1. The students should retain responsibility for the aims and objectives of the course.
2. The students should monitor the development of the course and its continuing relevance to their own objectives.
3. The students should assess themselves. They should be aware of how well they achieve learning tasks, and have a reasonable idea of their own level of proficiency.
4. The students should take an active role in learning. In a conversational classroom setting this may be manifested in the learner seeking out every opportunity to understand, practice, and learn (Carver & Dickinson, 1982, p. 15).
5. The learners should be able to establish their own efficient learning styles.
6. The students should enjoy communication using English.
7. The students should feel a great joy in their learning process.
8. The students should utilize their potential linguistic abilities when they express themselves in English.
9. The students should feel comfortable speaking English.
10. The students should be able to make their own sentences having a strong desire to communicate; they should not be following exactly the contents given in the textbook.

Increasing the Students' Talking Time

Striving for the means to reach the above-mentioned goals and objectives, the administrators began to feel the necessity of increasing the students' talking time. A simple mathematical equation was made; to have the students feel more comfortable speaking English equates with increasing their talking time. In the traditional class with the teacher in front calling on one student at a time, students are not given sufficient time to practice because there are so many students to call on. There are only six students in one class, but still the time constraint on students' talking time was one of the problems to be solved. A simple calculation shows that each student's talking time in a 50-minute class is less than 10 minutes. It is unlikely that they would achieve their desired performance in such a classroom environment. In order to increase students' talking time, the administrators reached the conclusion that cooperative learning (CL) would be an effective way to improve the quantity of students' talk.

Studies on teacher talk have been done by Gaies (1977, 1979), Henzl (1979), Long (1983), and Long and Sato (1983). Long (1983) notes that in language classrooms, tutorial (or display) questions are more frequent than in natural

settings. The same researchers note that comprehension checks and requests for clarification are less frequent in classrooms than in natural settings, which they feel is due to the predominance of one-way communication in classrooms. The direct observation of classes revealed that teachers tend to dominate the talk in classrooms with the result that students have few opportunities to speak. In order to increase natural settings in the classroom, the administrators believed in the importance of the role of the teachers as facilitators, not as a symbol of authority dominating talking opportunities.

Training Given to the Teachers

During the teacher training, this new role of the teacher as a facilitator was positively accepted by the teachers at the institute and a consensus was reached that teachers should democratize the classrooms and give more autonomy to the students with this new communicative approach. In an affirming and encouraging small group, learners feel free to talk in provisional, exploratory ways. At the training sessions for the school, teachers were introduced to the past empirical studies on CL by Bejarano (1987), Good and Brophy (1987), Nunan (1992), and Slavin (1983). Bejarano (1987) compared the effects of two small-group CL approaches to a whole-class method on academic achievement and found that students taught with cooperative techniques showed significantly higher achievement than did students in the whole-class method. Slavin (1983, p. 128) emphasizes the benefits of CL as follows:

> The research done up to the present has shown enough positive effects of CL, on a variety of outcomes, to force us to reexamine traditional instructional practices. We can no longer ignore the potential power of the peer group, perhaps the one remaining free resource for improving schools.

The research comparing CL to competitive learning has generally been positive (Nunan, 1992). Good and Brophy (1987) suggest additional benefits of CL; although the positive effects of CL on achievement appear to be basically motivational, the key is not motivation to win competitions against other teams, but motivation to assist one's teammates to meet their individual goals and thus insure that the team as a whole will do well. With the evidence suggesting the benefits of CL and theoretical support, the school launched the new innovative classroom organization plan.

The teachers were asked to read three academic papers which showed the effects of CL. Nunan's (1992) book, *Collaborative Language Learning and Teaching* was recommended as an additional reference. Since there were 34 Japanese teachers and 43 native-speaking instructors (40% full-time, 60% part-time) working for the institute at the time, four two-hour training sessions were

offered and the teachers were obliged to participate in one of these sessions. During the training, teachers viewed a demonstration tape which aimed to show how CL actually works. The training video was designed under an artificial situation using the staff as students. The basic principles and philosophy of CL were well accepted by the teachers and the video tape was useful in visualizing the tasks and activities. The teachers' positive expectations about outcomes and their excitement seemed to be promising for the use of CL at the school.

CL Activities

Existing textbooks and materials continued to be used, adding CL tasks and activities. In the previous lesson plans, teachers dealt with each student on a one-to-one basis for most of the activities even though there were six students in the classroom. There was little time given to each student to interact with the teacher and there were no interactive activities among the students. Each lesson consisted of five steps:

1. Introducing new vocabulary and expressions in the lesson.
2. Homework review by asking comprehension questions on the text in the unit.
3. Grammar explanation of the sample dialog.
4. Conversation practice of the sample dialog.
5. Role play practice.

CL activities were incorporated into the tasks in steps 2 (homework review), 4 (conversation practice), and 5 (role play practice).

The teacher doesn't directly interact with the students; instead he or she acts as a facilitator by setting a task for each activity. The teacher moves around to see how each group or pair are doing and helps only when the students get stuck in doing the given task.

A Sign of "Tissue Rejection" From Students

Approximately two months after this new method was implemented, we began to hear complaints from the students. A middle-aged female student sent a long letter to the institute explaining why she was not happy with the new teaching method. The following is a translated summary of her letter:

> I was looking forward to having plenty of opportunities to practice English with native speaking instructors at this institute. That's why I chose this school to improve my English. But your teaching approach has changed a great deal since two months ago. I used to enjoy listening to the teachers' responses even though they were talking to the other students. But now all we have to do is to talk to the other students in the classroom. I

> don't think it is fun and it is very boring. I can't continue smooth conversations with other students whose English is as poor as my English. How can we keep our conversation going when we are just looking at each other remaining silent? Some teachers are looking out the windows and I think they are neglecting their duties. Teachers should pay more attention to students all the time and we have the right to talk to our teachers. I am not at this school to practice with other students. I am here to practice with teachers.

Several similar complaints were subsequently heard. Hoyle (1970, p. 2) uses the term "tissue rejection" to describe what happens when curriculum innovation does not become an effectively functioning part of the system. The students' complaints were a sign of this tissue rejection; therefore, the administrators were forced to immediately conduct a survey to evaluate the curriculum.

The Purpose of the Evaluation

Nunan (1986) argues that no curriculum can claim to be truly learner-centered unless the learners' subjective needs and perceptions relating to the processes of learning are taken into account. He also states that there is anecdotal evidence to suggest that learners are more immediately concerned with the appropriacy of learning processes than with learning content, and it would seem that it is in relation to processes that most teacher/learner conflict occurs. The data derived from the curriculum evaluation revealed much about classroom realities of which the administrators and teachers had been unaware.

The purpose of the evaluation was to collect and analyze precise information on how the students were perceiving CL activities. The administrators needed accurate information to decide whether they should continue using CL or terminate it and go back to the previous teacher-centered method. They felt a strong responsibility to take prompt action to alleviate the students' frustration. The following questions were focused on in the formative evaluation:

1. Have CL activities been effectively implemented by the teachers?
2. If not, what are the causes?
3. What are the students' and teachers' perceptions of CL?

The main purpose of the formative evaluation was to revise and improve the curriculum according to the students' needs. Systematic procedures of direct observation of students' and teachers' classroom behavior were necessary to minimize the administrators' bias. Six higher beginning level classes and six lower beginning level classes totaling 12 classes and 72 students were observed by the administrative staff members. The students who participated in the observed classes were given follow-up interviews by the two observers

after the classes, and the questions concerning CL activities were asked individually and in groups. The eight teachers who taught the 12 classes were also interviewed individually.

The Results of the Evaluation

Teachers' Behavior

Most of the classes were well conducted in terms of general class management and time management. Teacher talk was mostly limited in all the classes and the teachers were making efforts to increase students' talking time through CL activities. Compared to the traditional teacher-centered class, it seemed that these CL oriented classes gave more opportunities to the students to talk, but even though such opportunities were amply given, it appeared that the class atmosphere was inactive and different from the one expected from the instructional guidance in the teacher's manual. Even though the tasks were explained to the students, many of them seemed to be confused about the tasks and they remained quiet or just kept looking down at the textbooks. Classroom realities were very different from the ones created on the demonstration video tape which was used during the CL training.

One of the questions asked during the interviews of the teachers was "Do you think you are successfully implementing CL?" Most of the teachers had been feeling that it was more difficult to apply CL to Japanese low language proficiency students than they had expected. Many of the teachers said that they didn't know what the reason for the problems were and were surprised when the realities were totally different from the training video, which presented a false image of CL to the teachers.

One teacher stated as follows in the interview:

> One of the reasons for failure of CL implementation is the students' language proficiency. The students' language proficiency was too low to understand the tasks, much less carry them out. Also the training video projects a false image of CL and the realities are quite different from the artificially created atmosphere on the video. Besides the problem of the students' low language proficiency, the students don't know each other so well and some of them meet in the class for the first time. The reservation system inhibits them from having active voluntary participation and creating a friendly atmosphere.

However, a few successful cases were observed. Successful classes mean here that there was more interactive and communicative behavior identified in the students' performance in these classes compared to the other inactive classes.

Those two successful teachers (out of eight teachers) were conducting CL activities creatively and effectively. They clearly explained each task in much more detail to the students than did other teachers and also they were creative in implementing CL using various techniques. For example, these teachers tried to emphasize team spirit by having the students compete with each other in the role play practices and gave scores based on students' performance.

The class atmosphere was greatly affected by the teachers' creative techniques of implementing CL activities, and the classes in which the teachers tried to foster and strengthen team spirit had a more cheerful and brighter atmosphere compared to the classes in which no such efforts were made. After the cross-validation of the data from direct observation and interviews, the administrators felt strongly that the teachers should be retrained about CL and informed of the various techniques of CL activities of those teachers who were demonstrating successful use of CL.

Students' Behavior

The direct observation focusing on the students' behavior showed substantial evidence that the students were not participating with a positive attitude in the CL-oriented classrooms. When CL tasks were given to the students and the students were told to work in pairs or groups, teachers told the students to change the directions of the chairs to face their partners. Some of the students hesitantly moved their chairs, and even though they sat facing their partners, they didn't look at their partners' faces. This behavioral pattern was more frequently observed in the lower beginning level classes than the high beginning level classes. The cause of this passive behavioral pattern was revealed through the data obtained in the interviews given to the students. A number of students claimed great difficulties with CL activities because they have to work with other students who they don't know so well. They emphatically claimed that they tended to feel nervous, particularly in the beginning of the lesson until they got used to the unfamiliar atmosphere, but the teachers didn't seem to realize the psychological pressures the students were feeling.

A student suggested that if there were a few students who were extremely cheerful and bright, they could take the initiative in group work to change the atmosphere, but unfortunately such cases would occur very rarely. Even though students had increased their talking time, the time was not necessarily used effectively because of the class situations. A couple of students complained that "most of the teachers didn't know how to help these reserved students, and then the class atmosphere became horrible and all students felt the terrible atmosphere except the teacher." They

confessed that some of the teachers seemed to be neglecting their duties because CL activities lightened their workload.

However, there were some students who experienced successful CL activities, and they stated that they liked the CL activities because the teachers who taught them used games to foster a competitive atmosphere. For example, one student said that even though the students didn't know each other, they immediately felt close to each other and worked together to win against the other teams. Another example of a successful CL activity was that each group shared a piece of paper and a pen to write up their own scripts for the role play practice, and they were allowed to speak Japanese while they were working on the task.

The Necessities of Modifications

This study reveals that there are certain requisites for successful implementation of CL. Kluge (1993) suggested that CL seems to hold much promise for improving foreign language education in Japan so that it should not be abandoned on account of problems. The problems at this institute, that is, failure of CL implementation, was due to 1) the lack of awareness of independent and interdependent learning on the students' side; 2) the lack of understanding of basic principles of CL on the administrator's side; and 3) the lack of the essential techniques to actualize the efficacy of CL on the teachers' side.

The administrators were convinced that the shared values of CL among the teachers, students, and administrators should immediately be built upon. Following the successful teachers' suggestions, all teachers were instructed to check each student's language proficiency level and attitudinal level during the first 10 to 15 minutes of instruction. If all of the students' levels were too low to implement CL and they were quiet and reserved students, instructions should be given in Japanese, or modifications of the time and the amount of CL activities could be balanced with using the teacher-centered method.

If there were some students with relatively higher language proficiency or who were "risk takers," choosing these students as group leaders to change the classroom atmosphere was the first appropriate step to make CL successful. The gender of the students was also an important factor according to the data collected. Since a larger portion of male students were enrolled at this institute (and the observations indicated that male students are usually more shy and quieter than female students), modifications regarding time and amount of CL activities would be necessary in such predominantly male classrooms.

The successful teachers gave distinct roles and responsibilities to the students through CL activities and tried to emphasize their team spirit. This showed that giving specific roles and responsibilities stimulated the students' participation.

Another teacher found that fostering group competitiveness and team spirit and building group autonomy by giving groups names could contribute to

brighten the classroom atmosphere. He added that writing the results of the game on the board after the competition was an effective way to foster competitiveness among the teams.

Implementing these techniques requires a great deal of imagination and involvement on the part of teacher and it implies that CL is difficult work and, at least initially, it is harder than conventional teaching. Keeping the role of facilitators and encouraging the students' participation is not as easy as it seems to be. Many students claimed that the teachers were having an easy time in the CL classroom, but the fact is the opposite for the successful CL classrooms.

The teachers felt that a variety of CL activities should be introduced into the CL curriculum. A number of suggestions were made by the teachers, for example, introducing new ideas and exchanging information on CL activities using the school bulletin board would be helpful for other teachers and the administrators could then follow what is happening in the classrooms. The students should also be aware of the basic principles of CL; therefore, distributing a newsletter to the students will be helpful for asking their cooperation and explaining why we are using CL and how we would like to proceed to bring about successful outcomes. As Brindley (1989) stated, teachers and students are likely to have differing expectations about what should be learnt and how, and misunderstandings may arise unless information is shared by both parties about each other's expectations.

Conclusion

A list of common misconceptions about CL were explained by McGuire, Kluge, and Thornton (1996). They claimed that people often mistakenly equate CL with a more general idea of group work. One of the misconceptions is that CL is just an excuse for the teacher to be negligent. That is a common pitfall that many teachers tend to fall into when implementing CL. The negligence will be immediately noticed by the students even though the teachers didn't intend to be lazy, as this study has proven. McGuire et al. (1996) emphasized that a properly structured cooperative lesson looks much like a well-prepared traditional lesson: It has clearly defined roles for the students and clearly defined goals so students know what and how they are supposed to learn (p. 60). That is the most crucial aspect of CL and the students will not be independent and responsible learners without proper guidance. CL brings an attractive and innovative image to English teachers in Japan; However, it is not a fad, rather it requires careful and cautious preparation before trial. Teachers should decide how much of CL can be incorporated after evaluating the students' learning environment and capability for taking on responsibility for their own learning. Confirming that trust between teachers and students can be built before implementation is a key factor to success.

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SECTION III

Units
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Chapter 6

The EFL NGO Forum: Integrating Cooperative Learning and Global Issues

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This paper explores the use of a non-governmental organization (NGO) forum simulation created by the authors, so that English as a foreign language (EFL) educators can encourage their students to investigate global issues. The unit concludes with a poster session-style presentation, which we call a mock NGO forum. This course, originally designed as a mixed-level, mid- to low-proficiency elective third-year high school EFL course, has also been successfully adapted and implemented at two different university settings. We integrated cooperative learning and global issues by using a version of "Jigsaw II" (see Figure 1), assigning the students to do "a simple thing" selected from *50 Simple Things Kids Can Do to Save the Earth* (The EarthWorks Group, 1990) as summer homework, and by culminating the course with an NGO forum.

Yamashiro, A. D., & McLaughlin, J. W. (1999). The EFL NGO forum: Integrating cooperative learning and global issues. In D. Kluge, S. McGuire, D. Johnson, & R. Johnson (Eds.), *JALT applied materials: Cooperative learning* (pp. 82-94). Tokyo: Japan Association for Language Teaching.

Following a discussion of the rationale and the description of the course at the high school setting, we will show how it was adapted for the post-secondary context. The format for preparing for the mock NGO forum is flexible and could be easily adapted to other contexts. Curtain (1993) describes how cooperative learning and global awareness activities can be effective strategies for increasing language use and communication with elementary school EFL classes. Other second language (L2) classroom researchers have successfully integrated cooperative learning and global issues to have students peer-teach current events (Assinder, 1993) and carry out group investigation projects (Sharan, 1994). In these ways, the students were encouraged to become active participants in the language learning process.

Rationale for Integrating Cooperative Learning and Global Education

Cooperative learning and global education share several common goals: cooperation, interdependence, and mutual understanding (at the individual, group, and national levels); enhanced communication skills; developing positive attitudes (towards learning, world events, and the future); and developing learner autonomy. In short, *process* is given equal weight and importance as *product*. Classroom researchers have found that instruction based on cooperative learning results in significant gains in achievement, positive attitudes towards learning, social development, and self-esteem (Johnson & Johnson, 1987, 1994; Johnson, Maruyama, Johnson, Nelson, & Skon, 1981; Kagan & Kagan, 1994; Prapphal, 1993). Slavin (1983) demonstrated the effectiveness of Jigsaw for creating a cooperative atmosphere and de Berkeley-Wykes (1993) and Coelho (1994) concur that Jigsaw tasks increase EFL/ESL student motivation and confidence to use English.

Although global education is a very broad field and many EFL teachers may be confused about what it is and its role in EFL education, there is a growing literature focusing on this area, particularly in Japan. Kniep (1985, p. 15) defines global education as follows: "Global education consists of efforts to bring about changes in the content, methods and social context in order to better prepare students for citizenship in a global age." EFL teachers can promote the ideals of global education, which include issues of peace, human rights, and the environment (Cates, 1990, 1992; Pike & Selby, 1988), through their choices for content, methodology, and ways for raising student awareness of the social context. Because there exists some skepticism and misconceptions regarding the use of global issues in EFL, Mark (1993), Dyer and Bushell (1996), and Cates (1997) address questions that frequently arise. Yoshimura (1993) supports Curtain's (1993) description of effective language teaching methods by explaining how global issues can be taught to children in Japan. Henry (1993),

Yamashiro (1996), and Zenuk-Nishide, Kelen, Henry, and Sabatini (1991) argue that global issues can successfully be introduced into the Japanese high school EFL context. Other EFL practitioners (Anderson, 1996; Hinkelman, 1993; Kawata & Harris, 1996; Miller, 1996; Modi, 1996; Sargent, 1993; Swenson & Cline, 1993) have created theme-based global issues courses and activities for tertiary students.

Setting Things Up: The Context in Which the Mock NGO Forum was First Developed

We developed the NGO forum simulation for a third-year elective English course having about 25 students at a private high school attached to a highly-ranked university in Japan. We coordinated one 50-minute class on Mondays with two class periods on Fridays. Since the students were studying grammar and preparing for a Model United Nations simulation (for more information consult Henry, 1993; Yamashiro, 1994, 1997) in their regular English classes. We decided to focus on environmental awareness based on student interest and available materials. On Fridays, the students studied environmental problems using Stempleski's (1994) video-text package *EarthWatch*. The Monday sessions resulted from a negotiated syllabus; students chose to do the Jigsaw II presentations, summer homework projects, and to end the year with a "mock NGO Forum" modeled on a poster session format such as those held at JALT and TESOL conferences. This involved integrating cooperative learning with global education using readings on environmental issues to provide the input for a four-skills language class.

The project topics and format were determined in consultation with the students. The first Monday session was spent negotiating the syllabus for the term and the second class for deciding the procedure and method of evaluating the cooperative learning activities. In the first semester, the students formed seven cooperative groups to research and peer teach one of seven environmental issues using reading passages from *50 Simple Things Kids Can Do to Save the Earth* (The EarthWorks Group, 1990) and *The Green Consumer* (Elkington, Hailes, & Makower, 1990).

Jigsaw II

Many EFL teachers are familiar with the jigsaw format of cooperative learning where students become experts on one part of a situation or topic and then teach other students in their discussion group about it. Grounded in her experience teaching listening, Yamashiro (1994, 1997) developed a Jigsaw II variation (see Figure 1) that took the form of a student-generated listening quiz that involved students as material writers, collaborators, and problem solvers. From their experience in teaching public speaking, Yamashiro and Johnson (1997)

believe that students enjoy presenting information when the tasks are well-defined, the listeners are accountable for listening to the speakers, and the speaking environment has a clear structure that is understood by all of the participants. For these reasons, Yamashiro's (1994, 1997) Jigsaw II variation was modified for this course (see Figure 1). The groups prepared oral presentations that all class members needed to understand for the final review test.

Figure 1. *Yamashiro's Jigsaw II Variation*

1) Have the class form into small groups and distribute different reading passages or a different part of one large text to each group.
2) Each group prepares to present the information in their own words to the other groups. In addition, each group will prepare a glossary of key words, vocabulary review questions, and listening comprehension questions based on the presentation.
3) Monitor student groups to help them comprehend their respective passages, serve as a consultant as they write their presentations, and facilitate presentation procedure by collecting papers and making copies.
4) At least one week before the presentations begin, copy and distribute each group's glossary to each member of the class. On the day of Group A's presentation, the other groups will have had ample time to study Group A's glossary.

Presentation Procedure

   a) First, Group A asks its vocabulary review questions to check the other groups' understanding of the key words.
   b) Then, Group A gives its oral presentation.
   c) This is followed by a brief question and answer session for the listening groups to check their notes to fill in any gaps.
   d) Finally, Group A asks its listening comprehension questions to check the understanding of the listening groups.
   e) After finishing its presentation, Group A turns in the written presentation and listening comprehension questions.

5) The teacher makes a review quiz based on the information and questions presented by the groups. The quiz will be taken individually.

In designing the Jigsaw II variation, we relied on the advice of Johnson and Johnson (1987), who explained that teachers must structure classroom activities, select appropriate materials and tasks, teach collaborative skills, and provide students with the necessary academic support. They further outlined the teacher's role in the cooperative classroom: clearly specifying the objectives, deciding the logistics in advance, clearly explaining the task and benefits, monitoring group work, and evaluating student work including collaboration (Johnson & Johnson,

1987). In line with their suggestions, for the Jigsaw II presentations (see Figure 2) the groups were encouraged to use simple, clear sentences and to:

1) clearly explain the problem,
2) explain what causes the problem,
3) explain the results of the problem,
4) suggest three simple things people can do to help lessen the problem.

Figure 2. *A Student Example from the Jigsaw II Preparation*

Acid Rain

Today I think most of people know the name of "acid rain." I'm sure you have heard this word at least one time. Acid rain have become the serious problem in many parts of the world. That's why acid rain is very harmful to the earth. For example, acid rain is killing forests. The Canadian maple trees are damaged by it and the maple syrup industry there may be defunct in several years. Also acid rain affects drinking water. Several toxic materials like aluminum, cadmium and lead are picked up from corroded water pipes. One of the biggest problems of acid rain is the acidification of lakes and streams. Fish and other aquatic lives can not live in the high acidity levels so that they were killed. Worst of all, acid rain is a major threat to human health. Like these facts, acid rain problems are now what we can not avoid anymore.

Suggestion

It's very important for us to stop making acid rain. There are limits to what individuals can do to control it. However, we should do something as possible as we can. One good way to do that is to save energy. At home, energy-wasting appliances are a major and needless drain on our resources. I think there are a lot of ways to save those energy. The less energy we use, the less coal those power plants will have to burn. We must remember it.

Vocabulary List

defunct	no longer existing; dead or extinct
toxic materials	poisonous elements
acidification	something has changed in to acidity
aquatic	growing or living in water
threat	an indication of imminent danger, harm

Vocabulary Questions

What do you call something growing or living in the water? aquatic lives
What is the meaning of "defunct"? no longer existing; dead
What is the meaning of "threat"? danger; harm

[Listening Comprehension] Questions

What is killed by the acid rain? forests
What has happened by the acidification of lakes and streams?
Fish and other aquatic lives in those lake and streams die.

Then, each group prepared a glossary from their script containing 20 or more key words two weeks before the presentations begin, so that copies of each glossary could be distributed to each class member. In addition, each group prepared a vocabulary review test with ten questions to ensure that the listeners study the glossary before the oral presentation and ten listening comprehension questions to encourage the other groups to listen and use listening strategies to clarify their understanding, if necessary.

In preparing for the presentations, each member first skimmed the two reading passages for the group's particular environmental issue. After this initial reading, the group members were instructed to discuss the reading to determine how well they understood the passages, to share their previous knowledge about the topic, to decide how they would approach the task of reading the passage for better comprehension, and how to organize the oral presentation tasks. For example, in one group, all of the members worked together while reading the text, sharing the burden of looking up words and discussing their understanding throughout the two passages. Then, the whole group together brainstormed the thesis and the meaning of the main subsections of the presentation and continued working together in the writing of the oral presentation and questions. Another group divided the passage among its members from the beginning, so that each member was the expert for her/his part. Each person looked up the key words and explained her/his words and section of the passage during the reading comprehension phase. They subsequently wrote that part of the presentation and the questions related to that particular section independently, but later the whole group discussed the entire presentation as they revised the final version together.

Despite the differences in individual task assignments within each group, they had to decide as a whole how to write the presentation to make it interesting and understandable to the other groups. From reading the assigned passages, the students needed to summarize the readings to provide the teacher with a comprehension check. Then, the students wrote their presentations preparing visual aids and handouts, such as the glossary and vocabulary review questions, and the listening comprehension questions. The students decided their presentation roles to ensure that each person had a speaking responsibility either as a presenter or question asker. Although each presentation would be spoken aloud two times, the listeners were encouraged to use speech modification requests (e.g., "Please speak louder."), so that they could better comprehend and take better notes during each presentation.

Although the presentations themselves involve substantial preparation, asking and answering the review questions perhaps placed the greatest cognitive demands on the students. The class discussed the types of questions to make for the listening comprehension questions, in particular the differences between "closed" questions, such as true/false, short-answer, and multiple-choice which are typi-

cally used to check comprehension, and the more "open" questions using "Wh" questions that can stimulate discussion, but which are more subjective when deciding if the answers are correct. This discussion was helpful in raising student awareness as they decided the types of questions to include for their listening comprehension questions. Each group developed a variety of questions: four true/false, three multiple-choice, and three "Wh" questions. Each group prepared sample answers to the vocabulary and listening questions, so that they could determine the "correctness" of oral responses. This process helped them to analyze test questions from the experience of writing questions, answering questions, and determining "correctness" of responses. Many students reported that they learned how to analyze and answer questions from this experiential approach.

Summer Homework

In addition to raising students' awareness of environmental or other global social problems, it is important to encourage students to take action and see that simple actions are possible by experimenting with "a simple thing to do." After taking a small action to help reduce environmental destruction as their summer homework, the students reported on their project, their feelings while doing this action, and their speculations on the impact they think their action may have. To help guide students in their planning, observations, and reporting, the following study guide was provided (see Figure 3):

Some examples of summer homework projects included not using the air conditioner for one week during the summer, writing a letter to the editor of a newspaper (which was published) to encourage others to use public transportation over private automobiles, and spending the afternoon in front of the local supermarket explaining the virtues of organic produce.

The Environmental Awareness NGO Forum

The Environmental Awareness NGO Forum (see Figure 4) encourages students who may feel ignorant or alienated from world issues to participate more actively, because each student has a clear task during the poster session discussions at the Environmental NGO Forum.

The EFL students appeared to feel more connected to environmental issues from having extended one-on-one discussions with their peers. To provide the students with clear listening and speaking tasks, the listeners were given a chart (see Figure 5) to fill out as they circulated to each of the presentations.

The mock NGO Forum is perhaps the most important element for mastering the issues presented in the course, because as the students negotiate their understanding of the issues, such as how to present the information to other students and through repeated negotiations of meaning with different students in varying contexts described above, the abstract and technical concepts became better under-

stood and more accessible for discussion. To present information effectively, students not only had to clearly define the critical vocabulary, but they also needed to know how to be more persuasive in their oral and visual presentation.

Figure 3. *Summer Homework Study Guide*

Summer Homework

During the summer you will try to do "one simple thing" to help save the earth, take notes on what happened, then write up a report.

Project: One Simple Thing to Do to Help the Earth

Preparation

- What is the problem that this simple thing is supposed to help reduce or prevent?
- Briefly describe (in your own words) what you will do.
- How and why did you chose to do this "one simple thing"?
- Decide your schedule. When are you planning to do your "one simple thing"?
  Day(s):
  Time(s):
- What do you think the effect will be (think of this before you do the "one simple thing")?

Observations During the Project

- What are the steps involved in doing the "one simple thing"? Be clear and specific.
- What happened while you were doing the "one simple thing"? Be specific, give examples.
- How did you feel before, during, and after doing the "one simple thing"?
- If there were other people around you, when you were doing your "one simple thing," what kind of reactions did they have?
- What happened as a result of your doing the "one simple thing"? How do you think it helped the earth?
- How could you encourage other people to also do the "one simple thing"?

Writing the Report on the Project

- What was the purpose or objective of the "one simple thing" you did?
- What were the procedures or things needed to do the "one simple thing"?
- Briefly describe your observation of what happened while doing the "one simple thing."
- What were the results of your doing the "one simple thing"? What do you think the effect would be if everyone at this school, Japan, and the world, did this "one simple thing"?
- What recommendations could you make to encourage others to do this "one simple thing," or to make this "one simple thing" more effective?

Figure 4. *The Environmental Awareness NGO Forum*

You will synthesize your research from the first semester and your summer homework projects by designing a poster to illustrate the problem you studied, its cause, effect, and how the simple thing you did can help to reduce the problem.

On the day of the Poster Session, you must explain freely (from your memory and knowledge) the points included on your poster(s):

1) clearly explain the problem,
2) explain what causes the problem,
3) explain what results from the problem,
4) suggest 3 simple things people can to do to help lessen the problem,
5) include attention-getting information (e.g., shocking facts, anecdotes, etc.).

During the Poster Session, each person will take a turn explaining the information included in your group's poster session to members of other groups. When you are not speaking, you must visit each of the other groups' Poster Sessions to collect information. You must ask each speaker about the above five points included in the poster(s) and display.

When writing your report, use your notes from the Poster Session to evaluate the effectiveness of each groups' Poster Session. In addition, consider your own group's presentation. How would you evaluate your Poster Session in terms of effectiveness.

Student Reactions

Many students wished that they had had more time to prepare for the mock NGO forum, but more importantly, nearly all wished that they had had more time to speak in English during the mock NGO forum as this student reports:

> If we have more time to prepare it, it is more useful for us. I would like to have more time to speak English in the NGO Forum. Because, it helps us to get information of not only English but also environmental problems.

When asked to reflect on the NGO forum course, two students made the following comments:

> I enjoyed [the NGO forum] very much because our group tried to study new not popular theme—Radioactive contamination—so, I could get new information about it. I enjoyed studying it really.

> This English class is best for me. I could learn to think environmental problems in this class. Especially "One simple thing" was good I think.

> It is very important to make class mates understand what I would like to say or explain by using easy word and so on. So, using easy way is very important when we do presentation.
>
> [EarthWatch] was very useful for me because I could study hearing English, vocabulary, and environmental problem. It was the best way to learn English!
>
> The NGO Forum and "Earthwatch" are good way for use to learn English each two. Therefore, if we could have enough time for each two, it was more useful for us, I think.

The students' positive response to the course, especially their appeal to have a longer NGO forum, shows that within a well-defined and structured setting, many Japanese EFL students can and do want to speak in English about important social or global issues.

Figure 5. *Listening Task: NGO Forum Chart*

Each student will visit the other groups' poster sessions, fill in their answers to the questions in the chart. Evaluate the presentations on a 1 to 5 scale, where 1 = needs to improve, 3 = okay, and 5 = very good. On the back: 1) decide which presentation was the most effective and why; 2) evaluate your group's presentation on the same 1 to 5 scale and discuss your strengths and weaknesses.

Group's Name	*What is the problem?*	*What causes the problem?*	*What is the consequence?*	*What can be done?*	*Eval*	*Comments*

Conclusion

Designing and carrying out the preparation for this mock NGO Forum on environmental issues has been a very rewarding experience for us as teachers and for most of our students. We are aware of the anxieties and difficulties that EFL teachers in Japan may have in planning such a course for their settings. We believe that this course design addresses many of those concerns. Some language teachers consider the single greatest danger for global educators to be burnout. McIntyre (1996) noted that materials adaptation and development and the management of information from disciplines outside of the teacher's professional training are two disadvantages to using global issues as the content theme for EFL instruction. As global educators, it is important to transform our roles from the *authority* of knowledge and language to that of *guide* for knowledge acquisition and *consultant* for language use.

By taking a four-skills whole-language approach for teaching content-based EFL, it is possible to create a course using authentic readings, a video-text package, and cooperative group work to provide students with the requisite language training, so that they could be successful in a modified Jigsaw II presentation format. In this way, students can become more involved in the language learning process by creating materials, cooperating within their study groups, and solving problems in terms of both content—that is, the causes and effects of the environmental problems—and process—how to present the issue and what the effects are of doing simple things to reduce environmental destruction. For many students, the challenge of experiential learning (Ur, 1997) within the summer homework assignment was the most important and memorable part of the course, because they could see the concrete impact of their action and then extrapolate the results if everyone in Japan were to do the same. Following this, the mock NGO Forum provides EFL students with a clear purpose for acquiring the knowledge and a forum for integrating the four skills, while it promotes positive attitudes towards language learning and increased awareness of global issues from the empowering structure of a student-directed activity.

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Chapter 7

Reading Together

Patricia Thornton

Thoughts of reading evoke images of comfortable chairs, warm fires, and discussions of a current book at the dinner table. In this image, everyone contributes their opinions and ideas, bringing their individual life experiences into the conversation as the meaning of the book unfolds. I wondered how I could create some, if not all, of this atmosphere in the classroom. I wanted students to be engaged in reading authentic and interesting writing, to be critical thinkers, to be able to relate their reading to their own lives and experiences, and to develop a love, or at least an appreciation, for reading in English. To accomplish these goals, I decided to use a combination of whole class instruction and cooperative learning groups.

This paper will describe the setting for which this course was developed and the process of planning it. Important questions about learning (e.g., What do students do when they read?) and teaching (e.g., What can teachers do in the classroom to support and develop the processes of reading?) were addressed in the planning stages. These will be presented along with the course description and rationale for the use of cooperative learning groups to meet the chosen goals. Examples of cooperative activities used during the course will be given, and the course's effectiveness will be evaluated.

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The Setting

Class Description

This class was a first-year reading course for Japanese junior college students composed of 58 women, 18 to 19 years old, with high beginner to low intermediate levels of English as determined by TOEFL scores and informal evaluations. It met for 90-minutes, one day per week for 26 weeks. The goals of the course were to increase English vocabulary and reading skills, develop critical thinking skills, and promote a positive attitude toward reading in English.

Planning the Course

The Process of Reading

My first step in designing this course was to consider fundamental questions about reading and what good readers do. Some important questions teachers might ask about reading are "What does it mean to read?" and "What makes one student a better or more effective reader than another?" The tasks we give students to do in a reading class will be determined by our answers to these questions.

Research indicates that reading is a dynamic process (Devine, Carrell, & Eskey, 1987; Nuttall, 1982) involving the reader in constructing meaning through the interaction of information suggested by the written language and the reader's existing knowledge. As readers read, they construct meaning based on the interplay of their previous knowledge and the new concepts being presented by the author. Teachers have an effect on this process when they provide background information about culture, unfamiliar language, and styles of writing. Teachers also pose questions that allow students to focus on and think about critical sections of the text.

In reading, there are two types of processes at work, top-down and bottom-up processes. Bottom-up processes involve the decoding of symbols and assigning sounds and meaning to those symbols. In a classroom, this would include activities such as vocabulary development, pronunciation practice, and understanding prefixes or suffixes. Top-down processes involve predicting, chunking text, and reading quickly to get the main idea of a text rather than understanding every grapheme and phoneme. This process draws upon the reader's previous experiences to make meaning from the text. The interplay of these two kinds of processes is called the interactive model of reading (Dubin & Bycina, 1991, p. 197).

> According to the interactive model, the reading process works like this: First, clues to meaning are taken up from the page by the eye and then

transmitted to the brain. The brain then tries to match existing knowledge to the incoming data in order to facilitate the further processing of new information. On the basis of this previous experience, predictions are made about the content of the text, which, upon further sampling of the data, are either confirmed or revised.

Based on this theoretical foundation of reading, I searched for a book which included a variety of authentic styles of American literature and helped develop both top-down and bottom-up reading processes. The book I finally chose, called *Life, Language and Literature* by Fellag (1993), meets these criteria. It contains a collection of American short stories and poems with reading skills activities, vocabulary-building exercises, and application questions.

I planned for the course to include whole class instruction for introducing cultural information; whole group discussion for sharing individual and small group experiences or questions/answers about the story; silent reading, and questions for homework to prepare for classroom activities; and cooperative learning groups to give students more opportunities to use the language in the stories, to help each other understand vocabulary, and to share with each other their personal interpretations.

Since this was the first time I had used cooperative learning methods at the college level in Japan, I went back to the literature about the characteristics of cooperative learning to gain a better understanding of its application in this setting. I was curious to learn how other college educators were using this methodology and their thoughts about its success. Below is a summary of the information I found.

Principles of Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning is an instructional approach in which students work together in small groups to accomplish a common learning goal.

Cooperative learning is not the same as traditional group work.The characteristics of cooperative groups that set them apart from traditional groups are the carefully structured tasks and the interdependence of all members of the group. A good cooperative task will demand full participation because of its structure either in assigning roles to the participants or making the success of the group dependent on all members. Individual and group accountability are also important.

There have been many studies comparing cooperative learning techniques with other approaches (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991; Slavin, 1990).

In analyzing the effectiveness of cooperative learning in college settings, Cuseo (1994, pp. 3-5) identified eight reasons for its success. The remainder of this section are arrounced around Cuseo's eight reasons. Cooperative learning:

1) actively involves students in the learning process
2) allows for effective monitoring of student comprehension
3) effectively establishes a "model-practice-feedback loop"
4) implements effective principles of human information-processing and memory
5) creates multiple opportunities for peer learning and peer teaching
6) implements effective principles of human motivation
7) fosters independent, self-directed learning
8) involves principles known to promote student retention (persistence to graduation)

All of the above theory and application is in reference to native speakers of a language. At the time, there was little research in EFL, but more recently a few projects have been described (See Bejarano, 1987; Deen, 1991; Lie, 1992; McGuire, 1992; Szostek, 1994). To answer the question myself, I considered each of Cuseo's (1994) reasons listed above in relation to foreign language teaching and learning.

If we apply the above characteristics and results of cooperative learning to the foreign language classroom, we find that cooperative learning methodology and language teaching/learning are very compatible. Skills such as communication, thoughtful processing of information, and application of new learning to old are encouraged. It also provides students with a smaller audience to try out ideas and language, making it a less anxiety-producing prospect for many students. Working in small groups which require full participation and interdependence enhances the opportunities students have to practice and use all modes of language. Let's consider each of Cuseo's (1994) reasons for success in the context of language learning, especially in regards to reading:

1) Cooperative Learning (CL) actively involves students in the learning process. The student-centered cooperative learning method requires students to become actively engaged in a learning process that encourages them to personally reflect on course material and relate it to their existing knowledge structures. In reading, this provides an ideal structure for students to engage in top-down processing that is required for full comprehension. In addition, cooperative learning requires students to articulate and justify their ideas as they communicate with their peers.

2) CL allows for effective monitoring of student comprehension. When students are working in cooperative groups, the instructor has better access to students' thoughts and perceptions than through lecture or reading lab models. By circulating among the groups, the teacher can observe and interact with a greater number of students. Working in small groups, students are more likely to engage the teacher in conversation because the interaction is less for-

mal and there is a smaller audience. The questioning student, therefore, has less to risk in trying out new language or checking for comprehension.

3) CL effectively establishes a "model-practice-feedback loop."
Students have more opportunities to practice language in all forms and to practice the skills emphasized in the reading class. They can utilize the strengths of other group members to ensure correct comprehension.

4) CL implements effective principles of human information-processing and memory.

According to Cuseo (1994, p. 3):

> Cooperative learning procedures effectively promote student memory of instructor-presented material in three ways: (a) by providing students with an opportunity to rehearse and consolidate recently processed information, (b) by providing students with immediate feedback regarding comprehension, and (c) by providing a change of routine from the lecture method during the class period.

In language learning, the opportunities to rehearse and get feedback are essential. In the reading class, when new vocabulary words are presented to the whole class, a cooperative task might follow in which students are required to work together to learn the words and be able to use them correctly to form complex sentences. A structure such as Kagan's (1989) Co-op Cards could be used.

5) CL creates multiple opportunities for peer learning and peer teaching.
Cooperative learning structures help students learn to value each other as resources for learning. Vygotsky (1962) hypothesized that peer teaching/learning is effective because the two students are usually at similar stages of cognitive development and have similar levels of cultural experience in respect to the concept being learned. In a reading class, as background information is explained to give a framework for understanding a particular reading passage, cooperative groups can develop more appropriate comparisons or examples that will assist learners in comprehending. In foreign language classes where there are few native-speakers, this teaching methodology can help students develop a more positive attitude toward other students and nonnative speakers as potential models for language learning.

6) CL implements effective principles of human motivation.
In Japan, when asked a direct question by an instructor, an individual student will often turn to her neighbors and seek group advice before venturing forth with a response. The idea of group as well as individual accountability seems

natural in the Japanese context. Students enjoy working together and feel more relaxed representing a group rather than themselves. Students are therefore more motivated to participate if they are working together. Also, research has shown that more frequent feedback increases motivation (Cuseo, 1994). Cooperative groups provide this feedback from peers and the instructor as he/she interacts with the groups.

7) CL fosters independent, self-directed learning.
In studying the characteristics of good language learners, Naiman, Frolich, Stern, and Todesco (1978) found that the most successful language learning strategies are connected with assuming responsibility for one's own learning. Students should be trained to create learning opportunities and to take responsibility for at least some of their learning (Sheerin, 1991). Cooperative learning allows students to work independently of an instructor within structured contexts, encouraging them to rely on their own resources and to take personal responsibility for their own learning.

8) CL involves principles known to promote student retention (persistence to graduation).
Few students drop out of college in Japan, but absenteeism is a significant issue. Cuseo (1994) indicated that American college students more often remained in school when they had opportunities to work regularly in small groups. That environment promotes social involvement, integration, and bonding among students. Though unproved, it seems the same reasoning can be applied to the problem of absenteeism in classes in Japan. If students feel obligated to their group, they may be more inclined to attend class and be in contact with group members outside of class, increasing the likelihood of completed assignments and projects.

Application of Cooperative Learning in a Foreign Language Reading Class in Japan

Forming the Cooperative Groups
During the first week of classes, students were randomly assigned to a group of eight. This became their "home group." Students remained in these home groups for the entire year. Other groupings were also used in "Jigsaw" activities (see below). Within the home group, pairs of students would sometimes work together. The intent of the cooperative groups was to give all students an opportunity to participate in discussion and ensure comprehension. Most class periods included both whole class instruction and cooperative tasks. The percent-

age of class time devoted to each type of activity varied based on the material under discussion at a given time. The cooperative tasks included Jigsaw activities, Co-op Cards, and projects, which are described below.

Four Sample Cooperative Activities

1. Talking Tokens (Kagan, 1989): To encourage full and equal participation, each team or group member shares information and contributes to a discussion after placing a talking chip (e.g., a pen, checker, playing card, etc.) in the center of the group. After all students have contributed in random order, they retrieve their chips to begin another round.

At the beginning of the reading course, I wanted students to think about what literature is and about examples they had already encountered and liked. Using a modified form of Talking Tokens facilitated students' participation. They were asked to read a two-paragraph discussion in the introduction of the text about literature and then answer the questions below, following the group directions.

Directions:
Each member of your group was given a playing card. That card represents you. Place the card in the center of the desks. There are three questions your group must answer. When you give an answer or tell your opinion, pick up your card. You cannot speak again until everyone has picked up her card. When all the cards are gone, you can begin again by placing the cards in the center of the table. This will help everyone to have a chance to speak and be an important part of your group. Write answers for yourselves and for your group members on your paper. At the end of class, I will ask a member of each group to report about their group's answers.

1. What is literature?
2. Think of a writer from Japan who appeals to you. Why do you like him or her? What subjects do his or her stories deal with? Are his or her stories relevant to life in Japan today? Share your ideas with the group.
3. What American writers have you heard of? Have you read any American literature? If so, think of one story you know and explain to your group what that story tells you about American life.

Talking Tokens works well as an icebreaker for new groups. There is a structure that encourages even reluctant students to participate. In a culture like Japan where volunteering is difficult, this gives students a less awkward way of participating. There is also built-in individual accountability since all students must be prepared to give the report at the end.

II. Jigsaw (Aronson, Blaney, Sikes, & Snapp, 1978): There are several types of Jigsaw activities. In this version, the instructor divides an assignment or topic into equal parts with all students from each home group volunteering or being assigned to become "experts" on one of the parts. Expert groups then work together to master their part of the assignment and also to find the best way to help others learn it. All experts then go back to their home groups where they teach the other group members.

In the reading course I used Jigsaw in two ways. Sometimes students were given parts of the story to read and teach in a Jigsaw pattern, and other times they were assigned comprehension or application questions to answer in Jigsaw groups. Since time is always a crucial factor, this can be an efficient way to deal with large amounts of text or questions.

Jigsawing can be difficult for students because it involves summarizing and reporting. It also involves active listening by those receiving the report. As a language learning task, I think it is very good because it helps students develop reading, speaking, and listening skills. It is important for the teacher to select appropriate amounts of text based on readiblilty and students' levels of English language ability.

III. Group Investigation (Sharan & Sharan, 1976): In six successive stages, cooperative groups investigate subtopics of a general topic chosen by the teacher, plan what they will study, how they will divide the research responsibilities, and how they will synthesize and summarize their findings for the class. Reports, presentations, and individual learning are evaluated by the teacher. Students are encouraged to use audio-visual material, dramatizations, and other creative ways to present the information they gathered.

One example of group investigation in the reading class was the investigation of characters in the story, *The Luck of Roaring Camp* (Harte, 1993). The home groups were asked to choose two favorite characters from the story and then by drawing numbers, each group chose the character they would investigate. The assignment was to develop a presentation to introduce that character to the other students. They could use drama, pictures, and props such as clothing to help the other students understand as much as possible about that character. They were also asked to identify all parts of the text that included their character, and to choose the passage that most clearly helped them understand that person. Finally, they wrote a "self-introduction" of the character. Evaluation was based on the group presentation and the written report. An overall group grade was given as well as individual grades based on the individual's specific tasks within the larger tasks. An evaluation sheet was also completed by the group which listed all the tasks done by the students and which members participated in each task. This activity spanned three weeks and most of it

was completed outside of class. Every group was required to meet with me at lunch time one day during those three weeks to discuss their progress.

IV. Roundtable: In this brainstorming technique students in a learning team write in turn on a single pad of paper, stating their ideas aloud as they write. As the tablet circulates, more and more information is added until various aspects of a topic are explored.

I used a modified form of this activity to help students develop supporting quotes from a text. The mid-term writing project for this course was to write a character analysis, choosing one main trait to describe and support with specific examples and quotations from the story. To help students prepare for this assignment I first had groups brainstorm together about three characters from different stories. They were asked to choose one descriptive word and locate three supporting quotes or examples from the story, listing the page number. One section of the form is below, with one group's responses:

White Silence

In *White Silence*, Mason was a *(strict)* man.
(Add one word to describe the narrator's personality.)

Support:	Place:
"Slash! The whip fell among the dogs savagely."	*p. 9*
"You must go on! . . . You must pull on! . . . . ,	*p. 12*
"Send Ruth here. I want to say good-bye and tell her that she must think of the boy and not wait until I'm dead . . ."	*p. 12*

The groups decided together the one word to describe each of the three characters. Then every student was required to fill in at least one supporting statement, read it aloud, and then pass the paper on to the next student. If the group disagreed with a student's statement, they could express their opinion and the student looked for a new supporting statement or defended their original choice. By the end of the session, almost every student understood the concept of supporting an opinion statement from the text. This is a difficult concept to teach, but in the mid-term papers all but a very few students demonstrated their understanding of this concept.

Observations and Comments about Course Effectiveness

Using a combination of traditional instructional methods and cooperative learning groups was an effective way to help students understand and analyze a challenging text. Students were not only reading in English, but also writing and

discussing. Attendance was good in this class, but when students were absent, the home groups gave them an easy way to get missed information.

There were some negative aspects of this course. The home groups were too large. I chose group sizes of eight students because of the number of students enrolled in the class and the room size. In retrospect, the large size enabled a few students to have a "free ride" on less-structured activities. In a similar situation in the future, I would limit the groups to four members, creating larger groups when needed by combining two groups.

On the course evaluation, students were asked if they enjoyed working in groups. If they answered no, they were asked to give a reason. 79% of students gave an unqualified "yes" response. Those who answered "no" and gave explanations listed comments and reasons such as, "It was difficult to talk," "My group wasn't good," and "I like to work alone."

Did this course improve students' reading abilities? That is a difficult question to answer. Most students (95%) earned passing grades in the course based on class participation, group assignment grades, individual writing assignments, and a final exam.

Conclusion

Considering the various cooperative learning tasks described earlier in this paper, all of them, in my opinion, were successful in helping students prepare for and analyze the stories they read. The more structured tasks such as Co-op Cards were more successful in getting every student involved. Less structured tasks, however, gave students the opportunities to learn more about managing their own learning. In the future I would continue to use a mixture of types of cooperative learning activities.

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SECTION IV

Activities
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Chapter 8

Cooperative Learning and Learner-Centered Projects for Lower-Level University Students

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This paper describes cooperative learning (CL) theory and examines its use in a project carried out by Japanese post-secondary English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students. Recently, there has been a paradigm shift away from the traditional teacher-centered classroom toward the learner-centered classroom (Campbell & Kryszewska, 1992; Chase, 1997; Deller, 1990). As we begin to incorporate this learner-centered ideology into our classes, we may naturally consider using groupwork and cooperative learning. What probably comes to mind when thinking about CL is a classroom full of students working together in several small groups. While this may meet the definition of groupwork, it may or may not meet the definition of CL.

What, then, is cooperative learning? In order to ensure a productive cooperative learning environment five essential elements are needed (Johnson & Johnson, 1994, pp. 4-7). These elements are: 1) positive interdependence; 2) individual

Sevetter, B. (1999). Cooperative learning and learner-centered project for lower-level university students. In D. Kluge, S. McGuire, D. Johnson, & R. Johnson (Eds.), ***JALT applied materials**: Cooperative learning* (pp. 108-116). Tokyo: Japan Association for Language Teaching.

accountability; 3) face-to-face promotive interaction; 4) social skills; and 5) group processing. Examples of these five elements in actual practice are detailed later in this paper.

Nunan (1992), in reviewing current research in CL, tells us, "Recent empirical work in literacy instruction has supported the theoretically motivated arguments in favor of cooperative learning" (p. 3). Further, Poel, Homan, and Flaman (1994, p. 1) remind us that:

> Cooperative learning (CL) is a method of instruction which many people consider to be new to the field of education. However, it is a tried and true method long used outside the ESL/EFL fields. It has been only in the last two decades that CL has made inroads into the foreign language classroom.

Foreign language instructors, especially in Japan, may find CL an even better approach for teaching their students than the traditional competitive approach as "the group tends to claim priority over the individual" and "concern for belongingness urges the individual to contribute to the group goal at the expense of his personal interest" (Lebra, 1976, pp. 34-35).

With the above in mind, it seems appropriate that we as professional teachers consider cooperative learning not only as useful but also as a sound pedagogical approach to teaching EFL in Japan. I have been using various CL models since I began teaching large college and university classes here almost four years ago. One of the ways I have incorporated CL into my classroom is through learner-centered group projects.

This paper will report on one four-week long CL project. I will outline its objectives and make various observations, and report results of a short student questionnaire.

Objectives for the Cooperative Learning Project

There were two broader goals and several objectives for this project. The first goal was to increase my students' enthusiasm for English and hence to enable them to activate their English language skills. The second goal was to discover whether the reasons for implementing cooperative learning in the classroom were in fact valid for the type of students that I was teaching (non-English majors considered to be of lower-level ability).

To increase my student's enthusiasm for English and help them to activate their English language skills, the objectives were as follows:

1. Students would enthusiastically work toward activating the target language that they had acquired in the past.
2. Students would do research on a foreign city or country where English is the

main language and learn about its various aspects such as its people, culture, food, sports, music, and points of interest.

3. Students would learn to give short speeches directed at a particular audience, learn to look at the listeners, and to speak in a clear and loud voice.
4. Students would practice their listening skills by hearing other students' presentations.
5. Students would use their imagination and artistic talent to create a large poster.

To discover whether the reasons for implementing cooperative learning in the classroom were in fact valid for the type of students that I was teaching, the objectives were as follows:

1. Students should work together in a productive manner by helping and supporting their peers.
2. All students regardless of their ability should increase their achievement.
3. Higher level students should help lower level students to increase their level of understanding of the target language.
4. The majority of the students should feel an increase in their motivation and desire to learn English.

The Project Details

The project was an adaptation of a similar project found in the book *Project-Based Learning* by Rudolph (1994, p. 36). Whereas in Rudolph's project the groups of students were asked to make a travel pamphlet on a place of their choice, this project asked students to create a large travel poster and to give a presentation of five minutes in length on a foreign English-speaking destination that the students wanted to travel to. For the presentation each student was to speak for at least one minute. After the presentations were completed, a small contest was held to determine which group's poster was best. This contest helped to incorporate the Teams-Games-Tournaments model of CL.

The student population in the study consisted of 322 first, second, and third-year private university students divided into seven classes and 80 groups of four. Those who participated in the case study were not aware that the study was taking place until the end of the project when they were asked to fill out a short questionnaire. The students were all non-English majors, considered to be of lower-level ability in English.

The students, after having been grouped by fours, were given a handout explaining the overall project (available from the author upon request). The

groups were formed two weeks prior to the start of the project allowing the students time to gather written information, maps, pictures, and art supplies. Students were strongly urged to do as much preparation as possible by reading about their travel destinations in advance of the start of the project. As students were researching together about one specific theme, each having to report on one particular aspect of this theme, the project thus combined, in some aspects, both the Group Investigation and Jigsaw models of CL. It was also at this time the students were told they would receive only one grade for their whole group and that each person in the group was responsible for an equal share of the preparation and presentation of their speech.

The actual amount of class time spent for the total project was four ninety-minute periods, with a one week break between them. During the first and second ninety-minute periods, the students had most of the time to work in their groups and were allowed to communicate in Japanese. The time spent during these two classes was allotted for the groups to create and make their posters and to write their individual speeches. There were also a few minutes allotted at the end of each day for the students to reflect on their work so they could determine what additional steps would be needed to complete the project satisfactorily. If the students wanted they could ask each other or the instructor for help in smoothing out their speeches. As the students were in the lower-level ability category, I also wrote several useful expressions on the board at the beginning of the first day to help the students with their writing.

Between the first, second, and third classes it was also important that the students do some homework. The amount of time spent was of course up to the individual and the more that the students accomplished during the class periods the less homework they had. The majority of the homework needed was for writing and practicing the speeches.

The third session was devoted to giving the presentations. On this day all of the groups put their posters up on the walls around the room. A student from each group then drew a number which represented the order in which they were to give their presentations. As the groups presented, one student at a time shared with the audience some information about the place that their group was reporting on. While each group was presenting, the audience listened carefully. One way that was used to usher this along was each individual in the audience graded each group's overall presentation. A simple form was handed out to the students to ensure uniformity (available from the author upon request).

The fourth period was used for holding an "International Travel Fair" during which all of the groups' posters were hung up on the walls. The students were allowed time to mill around the room to look at and enjoy the posters. Then the students voted by secret ballot as to which groups they thought created the first, second, and third best posters.

To create a true cooperative learning environment for this project I wanted to include the five key elements that Johnson and Johnson's (1994) research suggest are needed in order to ensure productive cooperative learning. Positive interdependence occurs when there is a sense that each member of the group is making a valuable contribution to the group's goal. I was able to accomplish this in part by having each student in the group work on his or her own individual portion of the 5-minute speech. Another area that aided group interdependence was the poster which all members of each group had an opportunity to create and design. Also needed for positive interdependence is the belief by all members of the group that they "sink or swim" together. This was accomplished by telling the students from the very start that each member of the group would receive the same grade based on the whole of their group's performance.

In addition to mutual interdependence a way to track individual accountability was also needed. The way I was able to accomplish this was that each student needed to research, write, and present his or her own portion of the group's speech demonstrating their own mastery of the topic. Without this individual accountability the group's final speech could have been done by one or two members of the group with the others being carried along the way. During the groups' presentations it became obvious to me that some members of some groups did very little to prepare their part of the overall speech. This lowered those groups' overall grades. The few groups that did do better than the majority seemed to do so because they had developed better group synergy and all members of these groups felt a need to contribute greatly in order to ensure a high grade.

Cooperative learning, when not structured properly, might allow for individuals of a group to work alone and then turn in the group's final work together. Allowing the students time to work face-to-face in the classroom created an opportunity for each student to increase their communication skills. Face-to-face promotive interaction helped to ensure interaction among the students as they helped each other to accomplish the task. As the students wanted to do well for themselves and for their group, this time together also helped the majority of the students to have a feeling of increased success which resulted in higher achievement and allowed the students to get to know each other on a personal basis. In addition, it may have helped a few of the silent or uninvolved students to interact with the other group members.

Social skills such as effective talking and listening, and small group skills such as decision making, trust building, and conflict management should be taught by the teacher in order to enable the students to be better communicators. For this there are two types of social skills taught. The first, task skills, allows the group to keep on task in order to complete the assignment. The second, maintenance skills, helps the members of the group to work well together (Dishon & O'Leary in McGuire, Kluge, & Thornton, 1996). As teachers

of university students, we may feel that our students have already learned social skills. However, I fell into the trap of thinking that my students would not need help with social skills and this created a lot of problems as many of my students did not have the skills to work together as expected. The biggest difference was that no one wanted to take on the role of leader for their group and this made it more difficult for the students to complete their project adequately and on time.

Finally, the fifth element, group processing, occurs when the students of each group begin to examine the task or project they are working on to determine if they are on the right course toward achieving their end goal. It also encompasses the group looking at themselves and the way they are interacting and working together. Part of this was accomplished by setting aside time for the students to discuss their projects to determine if in fact they were on the right course to help ensure that they complete their projects on time. Had social skills been taught, the students would have also been able to better discuss their group's interactions.

Evaluation of the Project

To evaluate whether the project was a success, I needed to determine if the goals and their objectives as mentioned above were accomplished. This was done by using three different tools: 1) an assessment of the project's end results using both objective and subjective means; 2) observation of the groups throughout the four-week long project; and 3) looking at and compiling the responses to a short questionnaire filled out by the students, relating to the main reasons for implementing cooperative learning in the classroom (available from the author upon request). As the questionnaire was used to determine important information relating to the study's second goal, I felt it best to present it to the students in Japanese as well as English.

Assessment of the Project's End Results

Both objective and subjective means were used to assess the end results of the students' projects. The groups' quantity of work—for example, the length of the individual and group presentations and the number of English sentences and labels, pictures, and maps used on the poster—were assessed objectively. The subjective assessment was determined primarily by asking questions about the end results of the projects. Besides quantity did the students do a quality job in producing their individual speeches? Were they well prepared to present them? Were the posters somewhat creative or done without much thought? I might emphasize here that the content was seen as the most important feature and there was less concern on the fluency level or the correct use of English.

The end results of the project itself were mixed. The quantity of time for most of the groups' speeches was sufficient. The groups spoke for about five minutes each; however, in some instances the time was not evenly distributed amongst the four students. In addition to this, many of the lower-level students did not spend a sufficient amount of time practicing their individual speeches and this resulted in lower grades for those groups. However, the posters were all very colorful, creative, and done with much thought, and the enthusiasm that the students showed while working together to create them was exciting to watch.

Observations: Successes and Problems

From the first day very little structure in the classroom was used as I wanted the students to truly experience a complete learner-centered environment. At first the motivation and the enthusiasm of the students were high. This may have been because the students chose to immediately begin work on the more enjoyable aspect of the project, making very creative and colorful posters. Several reminders were given to the students that they also needed to work on and complete their speeches and that they should keep an eye on the time. Despite the reminders, many of the groups took all of the first period's time and even part of the second for their posters. As a result of this most students did not have enough time in class to write quality speeches.

I had hoped that each individual would write their own one-minute portion of the group's five-minute speech and most did this. However, it was apparent that within some of the groups the higher-level students in some instances helped the lower-level students with their speeches. This may count as a negative with regard to individual accountability, but it was seen as a positive when relating it to one of the three main purposes for implementing cooperative learning, encouraging students to support and help their peers.

I made other observations that illuminated the project. Two weeks prior to the actual project, the groups had to choose a destination; I expected it to take just a few minutes, but it took quite a bit more time than I expected. Some groups were unable to decide even after twenty minutes. Another observation was that during the first two weeks of the project where the students had a lot of face-to-face interaction it was expected that the groups would do a lot of off-target chit-chatting, but with the exception of the first few minutes of each class the students worked diligently.

Concerning class attendance, I found that the students' attendance rate was higher, but only by a slight margin, with the exception of the day the speeches were given when attendance was very high. A final observation was that with the exception of a few students who had practiced sufficiently, most read their speeches from a written document.

Results of the Questionnaire

Laid out below in Table 1 are the responses to the short student questionnaire. Three questions were asked of the students to determine the validity of the objectives for implementing cooperative learning in the classroom for the type of students that I was teaching. The three questions were: 1) Did working with a group give you more motivation to study English?; 2) Do you think working in a group helps you to be more successful with English?; and 3) Did working with a group encourage you to help and support your peers? Students could choose from three answers: "yes, very much," "yes, a little," and "no, not at all." While this structure may seem to bias students toward giving yes answers it has the advantage of forcing students to make a firm choice between yes or no. Some readers may argue that some students may choose the middle answer without giving it much thought. However, I strongly encouraged the students to think carefully about their answers as it was important to my research and emphasized they would be protected by anonymity.

Table 1. *Questionnaire Results*

CL—Reasons for its implementation

	Yes, very much		Yes, a little		No, not at all	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Q. Did working in a group give you more motivation to study English?	47	16%	205	70%	42	14%
Q. Do you think working in a group helps you to be more successful with English?	67	23%	207	70%	20	7%
Q. Did working with a group encourage you to help and support your peers?	180	61%	104	35%	10	3%

Note: The numbers in this table represent the actual number of students (n) and their corresponding percentages (%), rounded.

In any case, the results of the student questionnaire clearly showed that when students learn cooperatively (even university-level students who are non-English majors and who have little enthusiasm for learning English) they can enjoy feelings of increased motivation, increased perceived achievement, and increased desire to support their peers.

Conclusion

This study has indicated that the benefits of cooperative learning are also available to university English teachers here in Japan. The results of the student questionnaire suggested that working cooperatively does indeed help to increase students' motivation as well as their level of perceived success. Knowing this it seems appropriate to include cooperative learning methodology in one's approach to teaching Japanese university students.

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Chapter 9

Positively Interdependent: Developing Oral Fluency via Task Design

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In 1993 the Japanese Ministry of Education (*Monbusho*) began implementation of Oral Communication, the newest addition to the national English curriculum. Consisting of three sections, "A," a listening and speaking course, "B," a listening course, and "C," a public speaking course, Oral Communication aims to alleviate one of the greatest problems facing the national English curriculum—namely that despite six years of study, most students can neither produce nor comprehend more than rudimentary oral English. This is demonstrated in the curriculum guidelines published by the *Monbusho* in 1991, where Oral Communication A, B, and C all share one goal: to raise students to a level at which they can actively communicate using English.

Fluency building tasks are one way teachers can work towards achieving this goal. However, students must be willing to participate in these tasks. They must use English communicatively before fluency can be developed. Unfortunately, in many Japanese classrooms, it is not uncommon to find students remaining

Lee, G. (1999). Positively interdependent: Developing oral fluency via task design. In D. Kluge, S. McGuire, D. Johnson, & R. Johnson (Eds.), *JALT applied materials: Cooperative learning* (pp. 117-125). Tokyo: Japan Association for Language Teaching.

silent, refusing to participate even when the task at hand is relatively easy. This is not, however, due to a lack of motivation. The booming commercial industry catering to English education is strong evidence that many students in Japan are motivated to learn English. Indeed, according to some estimates, as much as thirty billion U.S. dollars are spent each year on English language education alone (Koike & Tanaka, 1995). In addition, a large section of most university entrance exams is devoted to English. This means that English is especially important for high school students who want to go on to university.

Why then do many students hesitate to participate in class? One reason may be they lack fluency and thus are insecure about their ability to use English. This idea is supported by the *General Survey of English Language Teaching in Japan*, an eleven-year nationwide study, which reports that 74.5% of all respondents felt that they were weak in speaking (Koike & Tanaka, 1995). This is not just limited to students. During roundtable discussions at an All Japan Private Teachers' Union research conference, teachers in one group reported feeling insecure about using English, especially in classrooms where they taught together with native speakers (Yoshino, 1998).

Fluency building tasks can help students feel more confident about their speaking. The ability to use language smoothly and easily is a skill, and can develop only through practice (Schmidt, 1992; Nation, 1994, 1995). The "4/3/2" technique (Maurice, 1983) is an example of a task that research suggests helps to develop oral fluency. However, it requires students to take part in extended and relatively unstructured speaking. For many Japanese high school students, this presents a challenge so daunting that they simply do not participate in the task.

The 4/3/2 Technique: A Way to Develop Fluency

The 4/3/2 technique was created by Maurice (1983) to help learners develop oral fluency. In 4/3/2, learners form pairs and are assigned the role of either "speaker" or "listener." The speakers give a four minute talk on a familiar topic. Then they change partners, giving the same talk to a different person. During the second delivery, however, the time is limited to only three minutes. Finally, they change partners again and try to deliver the same talk within two minutes. The goal is to give the same talk three times, each time speaking faster so as to finish within the allotted time. Arevart and Nation (1991) found that from the first delivery to the third, the rate of speaking significantly increased by just over eighteen words per minute while the number of hesitations significantly decreased from 17.5 hesitations in the first talk to 13.64 in the third.

What features of the 4/3/2 technique are responsible for these increases? Nation (1994, 1995) argues that for a task to encourage fluency development, it must let learners practice using fluent speech. But what is fluent speech? Nation

(1995) defines it as: 1) speech in real time; 2) speaking without much attention or effort; and 3) a skill. Note that because speaking fluently is seen as a skill, tasks which aim to develop fluency must push learners to perform more fluently than they are normally able.

The 4/3/2 technique contains all three of Nation's (1995) characteristics required for a fluency building task. First, because the listener changes each time, the focus of the activity is on the communication of a message. Second, each successive repetition of the talk makes the task easier. By the second delivery the speakers have determined the content, so they can focus on giving a faster, smoother talk. Finally, the decreasing time limit for each talk encourages students to perform at a level higher than they are normally able. The 4/3/2 technique is very challenging for most Japanese high school students. Some students refuse to even open their mouths and begin. They may claim to have nothing to say, or simply be too shy to try. Other students, sure that there is nothing to be learned by listening to another student talk, do not bother to pay attention to what their partner is saying. Finally, many students stop speaking after only one or two minutes during the first delivery of their talk, claiming to have said all they have to say. This means the pressure to speak faster on the two subsequent deliveries is lost, reducing the value as a fluency building task.

Cooperative Learning: A Way to Encourage Participation

Structuring fluency building tasks so as to contain characteristics of cooperative learning (CL) is one way teachers can try to encourage more participation in the classroom. Olsen and Kagan (1992, p. 8) define CL as any "group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others." According to this definition, the elements of positive interdependence and individual accountability are the defining features of cooperative learning in a groupwork situation.

Structuring positive interdependence into the design of tasks may be a particularly powerful way to encourage student participation in high school classrooms, as groups structured in this way are common in Japanese schools. In elementary and secondary schools, for instance, students are usually separated into different ***kumi***, or homeroom classes, and each ***kumi*** is usually separated into smaller groups called a ***han***. It is not uncommon for each ***kumi*** to have certain responsibilities, such as cleaning the classrooms, watering plants, and tidying up around the school. These responsibilities are then divided among the different ***han***, and each individual in a ***han*** is assigned a specific job such as emptying the wastepaper baskets or washing the blackboard. When something is left undone, however, it is not

unusual for the entire *han* or *kumi* to be scolded, even though it may be the result of only one or two individuals. Students, then, are held responsible for both their own actions as well as the actions of the other members of their group. This means that groups structured with positive interdependence are an everyday part of early Japanese education.

Japanese students, therefore, are accustomed to working together and sharing responsibility for their actions with their classmates. For this reason, they may be more likely to participate in activities when they feel the sense of responsibility that comes with tasks structured with positive interdependence and individual accountability.

Putting It All Together: Making the Retell It! 3/2/1 Task

Retell It! 3/2/1 takes the main features of 4/3/2 — meaning focused communication, repetition, and pressure to perform at a higher than normal level — and combines them with the CL arrangements of positive interdependence and individual accountability. This creates a task that both encourages student participation and develops fluency.

Retell It! 3/2/1 requires two different texts, which should be short (generally between 200 to 400 words) and easy for the students to understand and discuss. It is important that the texts be kept simple because the goal of the activity is to develop fluency, not linguistic knowledge. Ideally, there should be no new words or grammar. (Examples of Retell It! 3/2/1, and a quiz are available upon request from the author.)

The procedure for Retell It! 3/2/1 is similar to 4/3/2, except that students, instead of coming up with a story on their own, have to retell the text given to them. In this sense it resembles the well known "Jigsaw technique." As with Jigsaw, at first glance the task seems complex. However, once students and teachers become accustomed to it, it runs smoothly and efficiently. This means it can be used with a wide variety of class sizes. I have successfully used it with classes as small as two and as large as fifty. Classroom procedure for Retell It! 3/2/1 can be broken down into six different steps.

Classroom Procedure for Retell It! 3/2/1

Step One. Separate the class into two groups. This can be done quickly and easily by having the students count off "one, two, one, two." Have all the "ones" move to one end of the classroom, and all the "twos" move to the other. Then give each group their part of the story.

Step Two. After the students have had several minutes to read their text, the teacher goes to each group and answers any questions that students have about it. At this point it is helpful to go over the main points of the text. If possible, the

teacher should give an example "retelling" to the students.

Step Three. Students return to their original seats and make a pair with someone who has read the other text. At this point the teacher should explain how students will move when they switch partners. It is helpful to draw a diagram on the blackboard to show students how to move. Allowing students to choose their own partners is a possible option; however, it is not recommended for two reasons. First, it requires significantly more time. Second, students who are poor at English will tend to be chosen last, and such an environment should be avoided.

Step Four. Group One becomes the first speakers, and Group Two becomes the listeners. The Group One students are given three minutes to retell their text. After three minutes they are told to stop speaking and switch partners according to the map on the blackboard. Then the same students try to retell their text again, this time in only two minutes. When time is up, they are told to stop talking and to switch partners again. This is the third and last time these students will retell their text. They must speak as quickly as possible, as they are only given one minute for the retelling. These three successive retellings with the continually declining time limit give Retell It! 3/2/1 its name.

Step Five. When Group One students finish their third retelling, they become the listeners and Group Two students become the speakers. No partner change is necessary for Group Two's first retelling. The exact same procedure described in step four continues, except that now when Group Two students switch partners, they go in the opposite direction in order to pair up with a new person. It is helpful if the teacher shows this on the blackboard diagram by drawing new arrows going in the opposite direction.

Step Six. After all the students have had a chance to retell their text three times and listen to a retelling of the other text three times, they return to their seats and are given a short, easy quiz covering both groups' texts.

Like 4/3/2, Retell It! 3/2/1 contains all the characteristics of a fluency building task. First, it is meaning focused because students are always talking to a new partner who will be tested on the material. Second, it is an experience task. This is accomplished in two different ways: the language in the texts is familiar and easy for the students, and the students repeat their retellings three times. Finally, the task encourages students to perform at a level higher than they are normally able. This is done by decreasing the amount of time allowed for each retelling. Students must speak faster each time if they want to complete their retelling. Note that this is made possible by the fact that they repeat their retelling three times and that the text is written in easy-to-understand English.

Unlike 4/3/2, however, Retell It! 3/2/1 structures positive interdependence and individual accountability into its design. Individual accountability is achieved because each student receives a grade on the short test at the end. Positive interdependence occurs because each group receives a different text, yet the test at the end contains questions covering both texts. This means students must

depend on their partner's explanation to get information about the other text. In other words, both speakers and listeners are motivated to do a good job because they share responsibility for each other's learning.

A Student-Based Evaluation of Retell It! 3/2/1

I have used Retell It! 3/2/1 extensively in both high school and university level classes in Japan. The evaluation reported here is from the first year I began to make and use Retell It! 3/2/1 tasks. I have chosen to report this evaluation and not a later one because I feel that the information that it reveals is relevant to teachers who will be using the technique in high school classrooms, especially those who are using it for the first time or who wish to create their own Retell It! 3/2/1 tasks.

Retell It 3/2/1 was used as a supplement to the designated Oral Communication (OC) textbook in a second year high school OC classroom at an all girls private high school in Tokyo. Like most OC courses, class met only once a week. The Retell It! 3/2/1 task was used between each lesson in the OC textbook, for a total of six times over the academic year. At the end of the academic year, students (N = 157) were given a short survey consisting of two open questions. The first asked students to give one or more "good points" about the Retell It! 3/2/1 technique. The second asked them to give one or more "bad points."

Table 1. *Categories of Good Points Raised by Students for Retell It! 3/2/1*

Category		Number of Students	Percent of Students
1.	I became able to explain what I had read in English	39	19%
2.	It made me try to speak English	28	14%
3.	It helps you become a better reader	16	8%
4.	I was able to explain using my own words	15	7%
5.	The texts used in the activity were stories	14	7%
6.	It helps you become a better speaker	12	6%
7.	It was fun/interesting	11	5%
8.	You have to really understand what you read in order to explain it	10	5%
9.	The grammar and vocabulary were easy	9	4%
10.	It was good English practice	8	4%
11.	I became more used to English	6	3%
12.	I could speak to/listen to many people	5	2%
	Not able to be categorized	28	14%
	Total	201	98%

Note. Percentages do not add up to 100 due to rounding.

Table 2. *Categories of Bad Points Raised by Students for Retell It! 3/2/1*

Category	Number of Students	Percent of Students
1. People used Japanese	43	23%
2. Explaining what you have read in English is difficult	30	16%
3. There was not enough time to finish explaining	19	10%
4. You give the same talk three times	15	8%
5. It was not fun/interesting	13	7%
6. People read the story to their partner	11	6%
7. Sometimes you cannot understand your partner or she cannot understand you	9	5%
8. If you do not understand in the beginning, the rest is impossible	7	4%
Not able to be categorized	41	22%
Total	188	101.00%

Note. Percentages do not add up to 100 due to rounding.

Students provided 201 good points. These broke down into 12 different categories, with approximately 14% which did not fit well into any category. Students also provided 188 bad points. These separated into 8 different categories, with approximately 22% being unable to be fit into any category. Tables 1 and 2 show these categories, as well as the number and percentage of students whose responses fit into each one.

These student comments provide a valuable look at some of the different features of Retell It! 3/2/1. That 28 students responded that a good point of the task was it made them use English (category 2) suggests the CL features of positive interdependence and individual accountability were doing their job to motivate students to participate. This was also reflected in category 7 of the bad points, where students remarked that sometimes they could not make their partner understand them, or that they could not understand their partner. This means that students felt pressure to understand what their partner was saying, as well as pressure to make their partner understand what they were saying. In other words, communicating was important to them.

However, in category 1 of the bad points, 43 students reported that Japanese was sometimes used during the activity. Furthermore, in category 6, students reported that people sometimes read their story to their partner instead of explaining it. There were two reasons reported for this. The first was that speaking in English was too hard, that they did not feel confident enough to tell their partner about what they had read in English. The second was that there was not enough time to finish explaining what they had read during the second and third retellings.

Based on these responses, we can see that certain features of the task had unintended, negative effects. While the CL features of positive interdependence and individual accountability may have encouraged participation as implemented, they did not encourage the students to use English. Some students evidently regarded the test as the most important goal, and therefore chose to read their text aloud or use Japanese instead of English during the retellings. Likewise, the decreasing time limit, a feature supposed to encourage students to speak faster, to perform at a level higher than they are normally able, clearly encouraged some students to read aloud or use Japanese during the task.

The language used in the Retell It! 3/2/1 tasks was highly controlled. All vocabulary and grammar had been taught to the students by their third year of junior high school, which was two years before the task was given. Nevertheless, 43 students reported they used Japanese to retell the story, and 30 reported that explaining what they had read was very hard.

In cases like this, particularly where students have low fluency, it may be better to run Retell It! 3/2/1 the first few times without recording their grades on the short test at the end. While the test can still be used to increase motivation to participate, the teacher does not have to record the points. In doing so, teachers can make the task less stressful for students and encourage them to focus on one of the real goals of the task: becoming more skilled in using English. Extending the time allowed for each delivery may also help students who feel they don't have enough time.

One final point that emerged from the students' responses was that some obviously did not understand how the three successive retellings worked to develop fluency. This was reflected in category 4 of the bad points, where 15 students remarked that a bad aspect of the activity was that they gave the same talk three times. These students commented that "two times was enough," or "you get tired having to do the same talk three times." Had the teachers explained to the students more thoroughly the concept of fluency development, such comments probably would not have surfaced. The teachers could have explained, for instance, that an important goal was to speak faster and hesitate less with each successive retelling, and that this would be possible because of the three repetitions.

It is important that students understand how the activity works, for this can help them understand the value of what they are doing, hence increasing motivation to participate. Teachers who plan to use Retell It! 3/2/1 in their classrooms should be sure to explain what the goals are, and how they will work to improve the students' speaking ability.

Conclusion

In Japan, implementing tasks with features that develop fluency is one way to meet the curriculum goals for OC (oral communication) classes outlined by *Monbusho*. Such tasks can be strengthened by adding the CL elements of positive interdependence and individual accountability, which are powerful motivators for Japanese students.

Retell 3/2/1 is an example of a task which has been systematically designed. Its design includes features of the 4/3/2 technique, which work to increase fluency, as well as the CL elements of positive interdependence and individual accountability, which encourage active participation.

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Chapter 10

Developing Interactive Group Skills Through Cooperative Learning

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Open almost any recent EFL/ESL textbook, and you will undoubtedly find some version of this: "Work in groups. Discuss . . . " or "With your partner, exchange . . . " or "In pairs, practice . . . ." Thus, it seems that pairs and groups have taken over the field, even in skills-based books such as readers, pronunciation texts, or writing texts. Indeed, pairwork and groupwork are not just for speaking or conversation any more.

But, let's be honest here: Pairwork and groupwork are not as effective as many people claim them to be. For example, how many times have you been met with silence when you have explained a pairwork activity? How many times have the groups you thought were doing a good job produced something that was completely off target? How many times has the target language been seen or heard only when the groups are asked to summarize what they discussed?

Homan, R.M. & Poel, C.J. (1999). Developing interactive group skills through cooperative learning. In D. Kluge, S. McGuire, D. Johnson, & R. Johnson (Eds.), *JALT applied materials: Cooperative learning* (pp.126-144). Tokyo: Japan Association for Language Teaching.

Groupwork, at its most basic level, can be defined as "students working together in a group small enough so that everyone can participate on a task that has been clearly assigned" (Cohen, 1994, p. 1). Furthermore, Cohen points out that a key feature of effective groupwork is that groups are expected to work in a self-directed manner; that is, the teacher must avoid taking control of the groups' discussions. The student groups must take responsibility for decision-making in order for the students to achieve their full potential. It seems to us that this concept of group dynamics is a key element that is often forgotten when implementing groupwork in the language classroom.

Coupled with this, there are undoubtedly numerous additional reasons why groupwork is often less effective than it could be. Chief among these are: A lack of focus and unclear goals for the groupwork task; tasks that can be done more efficiently by individuals; and lack of clearly defined roles for the group members. While these are no doubt contributing factors, it is our position that the most common reason for the failure of groupwork is simply that the students do not know how to work effectively in groups. Furthermore, it is our contention that training in simple cooperative learning activities, as we will explain shortly, is an efficient and effective means of teaching students to work comfortably in groups, even when the task they are working on is not particularly cooperative in nature.

In this article, we will first introduce and discuss several types of cooperative activities (Kagan, 1993) that can be used with a wide variety of classes and ages, from children to university graduate students, from housewives to businessmen. At the same time, you will no doubt notice that these structures are somewhat familiar—they are often variations on techniques that most of us have tried at one time or another. But, they are critical for helping students realize the full potential of groupwork.

Following the discussion of structures, we will concentrate more specifically on university-level students, focusing on three tasks that we have adapted. These tasks explicitly teach students the value of working cooperatively and appropriately in a group. The first task shows students what it takes to be a group leader, and how all group members need to participate to ensure the group's success. The second is a variation of the ever-popular survival game ("You are stranded on the moon. What items do you need to survive?"), the difference here being an explicit focus on cooperation in order to increase chances of survival. The third task trains students to work effectively in a committee, specifically focusing on volunteering and negotiating strategies. All three of these tasks teach students the value of cooperating in socially appropriate ways to achieve a goal. Since the tasks are not language-lesson specific, but activities that can be applied to many

aspects of life, students find them highly interesting and motivating. Before we begin a discussion of the structures and tasks, however, a brief introduction of our definition of cooperative learning will be presented. (For more comprehensive introductions to the use of cooperative learning in language teaching, see the special issue on cooperative learning in *The Language Teacher* [Poel, Homan, & Flaman, 1994] and Kessler, 1992.)

Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning (CL) is an educational philosophy in which students cooperate in order to learn. But, as with so many things in life and language teaching, there is more to it than just cooperating in order to learn.

Of critical importance in understanding CL is the concept of *cooperative groups*, "usually three to four students who are tied together by a common purpose—to complete the task and to include every group member" (Rimmerman, 1996, p. 3). This in itself differs only slightly, if at all, from what most language teachers view as groupwork. In order to propel this concept beyond this traditional meaning into the realm of cooperative learning, two central principles are necessary: positive interdependence and individual accountability. Although these are covered in more detail elsewhere in this volume, a simple review of the two will provide a useful framework for the subsequent discussion. (It should be noted that different manifestations of CL require additional principles, such as simultaneous interaction and equal participation [Kagan, 1993], and promotive interaction, social skills, and group processing [Johnson & Johnson, 1994]. However, we will limit our discussion to the two that are key principles in *all* forms of CL.)

Positive interdependence simply means that "each member of the group works together to reach a common goal" (Rimmerman, 1996, p. 5). In other words, the students must realize that they sink or swim together—they cannot learn by themselves nor can the group complete the task without everyone's participation. There can be no free riders or overdominating group members, as they will decrease the group's chances of success. Thus, the learning task must be structured so that positive interdependence is built in; it does not just happen on its own.

Cooperative learning can be broken down roughly into three approaches: the "Structural Approach" (Kagan, 1993), "Learning Together" (Johnson & Johnson, 1991), and the "Curriculum Specific Packages" (Slavin, 1991). The activities described in this paper utilize two of these approaches. First, we will describe several types of activities that can be incorporated into an existing curriculum; these follow the Structural Approach of Kagan. Follow-

ing that we will describe and examine three cooperative tasks: "How to be an Effective Group Leader," "Survival," and "Committee Work." These tasks are designed to train students how to work cooperatively in groups as well as to interact in socially appropriate ways. They fit more neatly into the framework of the Learning Together approach to CL of Johnson and Johnson (1991), with some influence from the work on "Group Investigation" of Sharan and Sharan (1992).

How to be an Effective Group Leader

This task was designed to help students learn the importance of being a leader in terms of group dynamics. At the beginning of the lesson, the students are told the objectives of the task, which is to learn the duties of a group leader and group participant, as well as some phrases that are useful in carrying out those duties. This is an important step in any lesson, and one that is often overlooked. If the students know from the beginning what they will learn and why it is important, they are much more motivated in carrying out the task. In other words, the students will see the benefits of the lesson if they are first explained to them, and they will perform with much more enthusiasm in order to attain the benefits.

After the explanatory comments, the students are taught the categories of expressions useful for being a good group leader (opening a discussion, asking for an opinion, responding, summarizing, and closing a discussion) and for being an active group member (giving an opinion, agreeing, disagreeing, and asking for clarification). At this juncture, a "Think–Pair–Share" structure (Kagan, 1993) could be used. After the teacher writes the categories on the board, the students individually write down their ideas for appropriate expressions for each, subsequently sharing them with a partner. The teacher then elicits answers from the various pairs and adds any other necessary expressions that the students may not have been able to think of (see Appendix A for some examples for each category).

After the useful expressions have been taught, the students are given two discussion dialogs to compare and analyze. As can be seen in Appendix B the first dialog is very short and stilted. In the second, on the other hand, the four group members are all actively and equally participating, and the leader is effectively managing the group. The students, upon examination of the two dialogs, are instructed to work in pairs (or groups of three) and determine why the second dialog is better than the first. Afterwards, the teacher elicits answers from the various pairs and makes sure that they all understand that the second dialog is better due to the fact that the group leader is using her leadership skills. In other words, she is mak-

ing sure that everyone understands what the task is, that everyone is participating equally, and that the discussion is not dominated by one or two members only.

The second step in this activity is to have the students categorize the phrases in the second dialog that have been underlined. Working in the same pairs or groups, they must identify the correct category for each phrase. This is a very good way for students to become more familiar with the nine categories and some of the useful phrases for each.

After the dialog analysis, the students are asked to perform scripted role plays (Appendices C, D, and E). There are three students in a group, and three role plays to perform. The role plays are designed so that each student must act as the group leader one time and as a participant two times. In order to relieve the students of the onus of having to think of opinions and reasons for those opinions, each student is given several opinions to use in the discussion. In addition to having the opinions provided, the students also have several useful expressions listed on the right side of the page, which help them to introduce their ideas and respond to others. The idea is to relieve them of the burden of concentrating on meaning and, instead, to focus on being effective group leaders and active group members.

After the role plays have been performed, the students have a set of discussions where only the topic is provided. This time they must develop their own opinions and arguments in order to discuss the topic and reach a consensus among group members. Once again, each discussion is led by a different person in the group, with the emphasis on making sure that each member is contributing his or her fair share to the conversation.

Once this lesson has been done, follow up is easy. The next time the students perform a group task, the teacher need simply ask them to choose a leader. They will groan and complain—or cheer if they are not the one chosen. But most importantly, they will understand how to be a group leader, and the group will have a much clearer focus and more enthusiasm than one in which there is not an effective group leader or active participants.

While the Group Leader task has cooperative aspects built in, it is not, per se, a purely cooperative lesson. However, the skills that it teaches are critical to the success of *any* group activity, and should be seriously considered by every teacher who intends to use groupwork in the classroom.

Survival

The survival task is one that has been around as long as communicative language teaching has been popular. There are many variations of the task, but generally, the students are expected to work together and come to an

agreement about the most useful articles to carry after being shipwrecked, plane-wrecked, spaceship-wrecked, or whatever-other-kind-of-wrecked one can think of. The teacher, at the end of the lesson, has each group write their list on the blackboard, everyone laughs at the choices and everyone goes home happy.

For several years, the same type of survival activity had been taught at International Christian University, and it was a pleasant diversion for all involved. However, it was not until the authors examined the lesson that we saw that there were valuable cooperative aspects present that were not being taken advantage of. First, some CL structures, such as Think-Pair-4s and Talking Tokens, were added to the lesson framework, as described below. Later, we realized that any survival task requires students to compromise, which is an inherently cooperative social skill. Thus, by focusing on this aspect at the end of the task, we discovered that this lesson can provide training in the value of cooperation.

The activity is one in which the students rank a number of items in terms of their usefulness for survival. Before the students begin, they read the information sheet (Appendix F) which tells them that they were in a plane crash in a desert, and that it is very far to walk to the nearest habitation. In this scenario, the pilot was not able to signal the authorities that they were going down, but an air search would be carried out after sufficient time had passed and they had not shown up at the airport. At this point, the teacher should make sure the students understand the information sheet and then explain the procedure. While it is possible to have the students study the information individually or in small groups, it is usually more efficient to do this as a teacher-fronted lecture. Once all students are clear on what they have to do, the teacher tells them that they are to first individually rank the items in order of importance and mark the appropriate step on a grid sheet.

After the individual rankings are done, the students work in pairs. They orally compare their rankings and devise a new set, which they enter into Step Two. After each pair has finished, they join with another pair and the process is repeated, with the new group ranking being entered into Step Three. The process the students have just completed should sound familiar, as it is an example of the Think–Pair–4s structure discussed earlier in this paper (although in this case the students must reach agreement in the "pair" step).

In terms of CL, the groupwork component of the lesson is important because the students must reach a common goal. In order to reinforce this cooperative aspect, the instructor should remind the students to appoint a group leader. The group leader will then be responsible for making sure that everyone is participating equally in the task. One way to do this is to have the students use the Talking Tokens structure (see Thornton, this volume), which

would require all students to participate equally. However, this should only be done in cases where there are students who are not participating; if the class is doing well, with the group leaders performing their duties properly, then there should be no need to use Talking Tokens.

Once the groups have made their final rankings and entered them into Step Three, the teacher provides the experts' opinion (Appendix G), which the students record in Step Four. Once everybody understands the experts' rankings, the students then calculate the absolute difference between their individual rankings and the experts' rankings. For example, if the expert ranks the pistol as a 7, and the student ranks it as a 3, then the absolute difference is 4. The student then enters a 4 in Step Five. If the student ranks the pistol as a 10, then the absolute difference is 3, and a 3 is written down. The students continue doing the calculations until Step Five is filled in. Next, all the numbers in Step Five are added up, and that score is entered into the Step Five Totals box. The students then do the same for the team scores in Step Six, calculating the absolute difference between Steps Three and Four and writing the total at the bottom.

At this point, students may wonder what these numbers mean. Generally a score of 20 or below represents a very strong chance for survival; between 20 and 30 indicates a good to moderate chance; and over 30 means they have an "extremely slim" chance of surviving for any length of time.

Now comes the most crucial part of the lesson. The students compute an Average Individual Score (AIS), in which all the individual scores of a group are added up and the total is divided by the number of group members. For example, individual scores of 25, 34, 36, and 35 would equal a point total of 130 which would then be divided by 4 and would reveal an AIS of 32.5. This would be entered into the AIS score box. Next, the team score calculated from Step Six above is entered into the Team Score box. The team score is then subtracted from the AIS score, and the number is recorded in the Cooperative Score (CS) box.

After all the calculations have been made, it is time to explain to the students the relevance of their final number. In most cases, the individual scores and average individual scores will be higher than the team's score. This is a situation that is desirable, because cooperation between members should result in numbers that reflect wiser decisions, hence a lower team score that more closely reflects the recommendations made by the experts. If the team score is "0," the team would have the same rankings as the experts, which is exactly what is desired.

The Cooperative Score tells the team how well they worked together as a group: A plus score indicates that the group has cooperated well, whereas a minus score indicates that one or two members of the group may have domi-

nated the discussion, causing the group to make poor decisions. Most groups improved their chances of survival; only one group displayed a lack of cooperation. In addition, as the AIS shows, individuals would have had little or moderate chance of surviving. However, those teams that worked cooperatively showed remarkable improvement, with four groups very likely to survive.

Student Reactions

Comments and reactions to the tasks were gathered through weekly assignments in which students wrote one or two paragraph impressions of the week's lesson. Their comments seemed to show a realization that cooperation is beneficial in reaching a group goal. In addition, they frequently communicated the fact that the lessons were useful for them in the real world. Moreover, they routinely stated that they were very appreciative that they were able to learn English that was useful to them and not just the same mundane topics that are repeatedly used in the average English textbook. In other words, the groups training tasks were not only beneficial to language and social skills development, but were also enjoyable.

Conclusion

In this paper, we have demonstrated how cooperative learning can be incorporated into speaking lessons. In addition, we have shown how lessons have been adapted and used for training the students in social skills and the benefits of cooperative groupwork. The above tasks were originally intended to be speaking lessons for an academic English program, but after examining them from a different perspective, they showed great potential as being more than *just* speaking lessons. They are useful not only for teaching the language skills necessary for improving English, but also for improving the students' ability to function in society.

Thus, teachers who are interested in introducing cooperative learning into their own classes are encouraged to examine their own materials in a different light by evaluating them in terms of their usefulness for cooperative group training. Once you introduce the cooperative skills discussed in this article, you will notice marked improvement in your students' ability to carry out groupwork tasks.

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Appendix A

How to be an Effective Group Leader: Categories & Useful Phrases

Group Leader

(1) Opening a Discussion

Today we need to decide/discuss/prepare . . .
Let's begin with . . .
Next, we need to talk about . . .

(2) Asking for an opinion

What about . . . ?
What do you think, ( )?
Does anybody have anything else to add?
Would anybody like to add to what ( ) has just said?

(3) Responding

Yes, that's a good/interesting point.
I see what you mean.
Yes, I understand.

(4) Summarizing

Okay, so far we've said . . .
Okay, to sum up, we've said . . .

(5) Closing a Discussion

Is everyone ready to move on to the next question?
Let's move on to the next point.
Well, that's all we have time for.
Okay, time's up. We don't all agree yet, but maybe we can work it out next time.
Well, it's almost time to finish up. Do we all agree?

Participants

(6) Giving an opinion

I think . . .
I'd say . . .
It seems to me . . .
As far as I'm concerned . . .
I suppose . . .
I wonder if . . .

(7) Agreeing

I agree.
I think so too.
That's very true.
Yes, I know exactly what you mean.

(8) Disagreeing

I see your point, but . . .
That may be true, but . . .
Yes, but . . .
That's true, but . . .
But don't you think . . .

(9) Asking for Clarification

I'm sorry, but could you explain that again?
Could you repeat that, please?
I'm not sure I understand what you mean.

Appendix B

How to be an Effective Group Leader: Activity One

Discussion Analysis

Situation: Four people are discussing the Beatles. In order to focus their discussion, they have decided to first answer the question, "What is the best Beatles song?"

Task 1: With a partner, discuss the differences between Discussion 1 and Discussion 2. Make sure you are able to explain the reasons why Discussion 2 is better.

Task 2: With the same partner, look at the underlined expressions in Discussion 2 and number them according to the categories your teacher has written on the blackboard.

	Discussion 1	Discussion 2
Georgina:	Okay, the best Beatles song. How about *Yesterday*?	First, we need to decide what the best Beatles' song is. Let's begin with *Yesterday*. What do you think, Paulette?
Paulette:	Yes, it's good.	I think it's certainly one of the best. The music is beautiful, and the words are so deep.
Ringo:	Yes, it is.	I see your point, but isn't it a song of the past?
John:	Yes, but so is *Imagine*.	I agree, and I don't think it's as good as *Imagine* either. *Imagine* is one of the best songs ever.
Paulette:	Mmm.	Yes, but it's not very creative, is it?
Georgina:	So, *Imagine* and *Yesterday*. Anything else?	Okay, so far we have *Yesterday* and *Imagine*. Does anybody have anything else to add?
Ringo:	*Hey Jude*.	As far as I'm concerned, they're both too sentimental. I prefer *Hey Jude*. Great drums!
Georgina:	Yes. Uh. Er . . .	Yes, that's a good point. Would anybody like to comment on what Ringo's just said?
Paulette:	[Silence]	Yes, *Hey Jude* is an excellent song. After all, I wrote most of it.
Georgina:	John?	What do you think, John?
John:	[Silence]	Yes, it is a good song. I wrote most of it too.
Georgina:	Anybody else?	So, does anybody have anything else to add?
Others:	[Silence]	No.
Georgina:	What about *She Loves You*?	What about *She Loves You*?
John:	Yeah.	Yeah.
Paulette:	Yeah.	Yeah.
Ringo:	Yeah.	Yeah.
Georgina:	HELP!	Okay, so we all agree. Let's move on to the next point. Secondly, we need to discuss Beatles' movies. Ringo, what's your opinion of *Help*?

Appendix C

How to be an Effective Group Leader: Activity Two Student A

Worksheet

Role One: Women Working Outside the Home (Group Leader)

You are the group leader. The topic for discussion is whether or not women should work outside the home. Your responsibility is to keep the conversation going and to make sure that the other group members speak for an equal amount of time. Try to bring the discussion to a conclusion.

Be sure to use the expressions below. And don't forget that an effective group leader is also an active participant!

Useful Expressions

- Opening a Discussion
  - __ *Today we need to decide/discuss/prepare . . .*
  - __ *Let's begin with . . .*
- Asking for an opinion
  - __ *What about . . . ?*
  - __ *What do you think, [name]?*
  - __ *Does anybody have anything else to add?*
  - __ *Would anybody like to add to what [name] has just said?*
- Responding
  - __ *Yes, that's a good/interesting point.*
  - __ *I see what you mean.*
  - __ *Yes, I understand.*
- Summarizing
  - __ *Okay, so far we've said . . .*
  - __ *Okay, to sum up, we've said . . .*
- Closing a Discussion
  - __ *Is everyone ready to move on to the next question?*
  - __ *Let's move on to the next point.*
  - __ *Well, that's all we have time for.*
  - __ *Well, it's almost time to finish up. Do we all agree?*
  - __ *Okay, time's up. We don't all agree yet, but maybe we can work it out next time.*

Role Two: Uniforms for University Students (Participant)

You are a participant in this discussion. You believe that all university students should be required to wear uniforms because . . .

. . . it increases morale
. . . it provides a sense of school identity
. . . it helps students focus on their school work rather than on their appearances
. . . it is less distracting for teachers
. . . it keeps costs down

Be sure to use the expressions below.

Useful expressions

- Giving an opinion
  - __ *I think . . .*
  - __ *I'd say . . .*
  - __ *It seems to me . . .*
  - __ *As far as I'm concerned . . .*
  - __ *I suppose . . .*
  - __ *I wonder if . . .*
- Agreeing
  - __ *I agree.*
  - __ *I think so too.*
  - __ *That's very true.*
  - __ *Yes, I know exactly what you mean.*
- Disagreeing
  - __ *I see your point, but . . .*
  - __ *That may be true, but . . .*
  - __ *Yes, but . . .*
  - __ *That's true, but . . .*
  - __ *But don't you think . . .*
- Asking for Clarification
  - __ *I'm sorry, but could you explain that again?*
  - __ *Could you repeat that, please?*
  - __ *I'm not sure I understand what you mean.*

Role Three: Banning Smoking in Public Places (Participant)

You are a participant in this discussion. You believe that cigarette smoking should not be banned in public places. It should be a matter of choice because . . .

. . . cigarette smoking allows for human individuality

. . . other things which are more harmful are not banned

. . . cigarette smoking reduces stress

. . . cigarette sales increase tax revenue

Be sure to use the expressions below.

Useful expressions

- Giving an opinion
  - __ *I think . . .*
  - __ *I'd say . . .*
  - __ *It seems to me . . .*
  - __ *As far as I'm concerned . . .*
  - __ *I suppose . . .*
  - __ *I wonder if . . .*
- Agreeing
  - __ *I agree.*
  - __ *I think so too.*
  - __ *That's very true.*
  - __ *Yes, I know exactly what you mean.*
- Disagreeing
  - __ *I see your point, but . . .*
  - __ *That may be true, but . . .*
  - __ *Yes, but . . .*
  - __ *That's true, but . . .*
  - __ *But don't you think . . .*
- Asking for Clarification
  - __ *I'm sorry, but could you explain that again?*
  - __ *Could you repeat that, please?*
  - __ *I'm not sure I understand what you mean.*

Appendix D

How to be an Effective Group Leader: Activity Two Student B

Worksheet

Role One: Women Working Outside the Home (Participant)

You are a participant in this discussion. You believe that women should not work outside the home because . . .

. . . they should take care of children
. . . it's natural for women to stay home
. . . women are better at housework
. . . it's embarrassing for a man if his wife works
. . . a clear division of labor leads to a more stable society

Be sure to use the expressions below.

Useful expressions

- Giving an opinion
  - __ *I think . . .*
  - __ *I'd say . . .*
  - __ *It seems to me . . .*
  - __ *As far as I'm concerned . . .*
  - __ *I suppose . . .*
  - __ *I wonder if . . .*
- Agreeing
  - __ *I agree.*
  - __ *I think so too.*
  - __ *That's very true.*
  - __ *Yes, I know exactly what you mean.*
- Disagreeing
  - __ *I see your point, but . . .*
  - __ *That may be true, but . . .*
  - __ *Yes, but . . .*
  - __ *That's true, but . . .*
  - __ *But don't you think . . .*
- Asking for Clarification
  - __ *I'm sorry, but could you explain that again?*
  - __ *Could you repeat that, please?*
  - __ *I'm not sure I understand what you mean.*

Role Two: Uniforms for University Students (Group Leader)

You are the group leader. The topic for discussion is whether or not uniforms should be required for university students. Your responsibility is to keep the conversation going and to make sure that the other group members speak for an equal amount of time. Try to bring the discussion to a conclusion.

Be sure to use the expressions below. And don't forget that an effective group leader is also an active participant!

Useful Expressions

- Opening a Discussion
  - __ *Today we need to decide/discuss/prepare . . .*
  - __ *Let's begin with . . .*
- Asking for an opinion
  - __ What about . . . ?
  - __ What do you think, [name]?
  - __ *Does anybody have anything else to add?*
  - __ *Would anybody like to add to what [name] has just said?*
- Responding
  - __ Yes, that's a good/interesting point.
  - __ I see what you mean.
  - __ Yes, I understand.
- Summarizing
  - __ Okay, so far we've said . . .
  - __ Okay, to sum up, we've said . . .
- Closing a Discussion
  - __ *Is everyone ready to move on to the next question?*
  - __ *Let's move on to the next point.*
  - __ *Well, that's all we have time for.*
  - __ *Well, it's almost time to finish up. Do we all agree?*
  - __ *Okay, time's up. We don't all agree yet, but maybe we can work it out next time.*

Role Three: Banning Smoking in Public Places (Participant)

You are a participant in this discussion. You believe that cigarette smoking should be banned in all public places because . . .

. . . it's dangerous to others
. . . it bothers others
. . . it causes cancer and therefore increases health costs
. . . discarded cigarettes are dirty and may cause fires

Be sure to use the expressions below.

Useful expressions

- Giving an opinion
  - __ *I think . . .*
  - __ *I'd say . . .*
  - __ *It seems to me . . .*
  - __ *As far as I'm concerned . . .*
  - __ *I suppose . . .*
  - __ *I wonder if . . .*
- Agreeing
  - __ *I agree.*
  - __ *I think so too.*
  - __ *That's very true.*
  - __ *Yes, I know exactly what you mean.*
- Disagreeing
  - __ *I see your point, but . . .*
  - __ *That may be true, but . . .*
  - __ *Yes, but . . .*
  - __ *That's true, but . . .*
  - __ *But don't you think . . .*
- Asking for Clarification
  - __ *I'm sorry, but could you explain that again?*
  - __ *Could you repeat that, please?*
  - __ *I'm not sure I understand what you mean.*

Appendix E

How to be an Effective Group Leader: Activity Two Student C

Worksheet

Role One: Women Working Outside the Home (Participant)

You are a participant in this discussion. You believe that women should work outside the home because . . .

. . . women can contribute to society in positive ways
. . . it makes women feel good
. . . it brings in more income
. . . children can learn to be responsible
. . . it allows men to experience doing housework and spend time with their children

Be sure to use the expressions below.

Useful expressions

- Giving an opinion
  - __ *I think . . .*
  - __ *I'd say . . .*
  - __ *It seems to me . . .*
  - __ *As far as I'm concerned . . .*
  - __ *I suppose . . .*
  - __ *I wonder if . . .*
- Agreeing
  - __ *I agree.*
  - __ *I think so too.*
  - __ *That's very true.*
  - __ *Yes, I know exactly what you mean.*
- Disagreeing
  - __ *I see your point, but . . .*
  - __ *That may be true, but . . .*
  - __ *Yes, but . . .*
  - __ *That's true, but . . .*
  - __ *But don't you think . . .*
- Asking for Clarification
  - __ *I'm sorry, but could you explain that again?*
  - __ *Could you repeat that, please?*
  - __ *I'm not sure I understand what you mean.*

Role Two: Uniforms for University Students (Participant)

You are a participant in this discussion. You believe that university students should not be required to wear uniforms because . . .

. . . it's too much like high school
. . . uniforms are boring
. . . a choice of clothing allows for individual freedom
. . . students can choose their clothing to suit the season
. . . teachers can distinguish students

Be sure to use the expressions below.

Useful expressions

- Giving an opinion
  - __ *I think . . .*
  - __ *I'd say . . .*
  - __ *It seems to me . . .*
  - __ *As far as I'm concerned . . .*
  - __ *I suppose . . .*
  - __ *I wonder if . . .*
- Agreeing
  - __ *I agree.*
  - __ *I think so too.*
  - __ *That's very true.*
  - __ *Yes, I know exactly what you mean.*
- Disagreeing
  - __ *I see your point, but . . .*
  - __ *That may be true, but . . .*
  - __ *Yes, but . . .*
  - __ *That's true, but . . .*
  - __ *But don't you think . . .*
- Asking for Clarification
  - __ *I'm sorry, but could you explain that again?*
  - __ *Could you repeat that, please?*
  - __ *I'm not sure I understand what you mean.*

Role Three: Banning Smoking in Public Places (Group Leader)

You are the group leader. The topic for discussion is whether or not cigarettes should be banned in public places. Your responsibility is to keep the conversation going and to make sure that the other group members speak for an equal amount of time. Try to bring the discussion to a conclusion.

Be sure to use the expressions below. And don't forget that an effective group leader is also an active participant

Useful Expressions

- Opening a Discussion
  - __ *Today we need to decide/discuss/prepare . . .*
  - __ *Let's begin with . . .*
- Asking for an opinion
  - __ *What about . . . ?*
  - __ *What do you think, [name]?*
  - __ *Does anybody have anything else to add?*
  - __ *Would anybody like to add to what [name] has just said?*
- Responding
  - __ *Yes, that's a good/interesting point.*
  - __ *I see what you mean.*
  - __ *Yes, I understand.*
- Summarizing
  - __ *Okay, so far we've said . . .*
  - __ *Okay, to sum up, we've said . . .*
- Closing a Discussion
  - __ *Is everyone ready to move on to the next question?*
  - __ *Let's move on to the next point.*
  - __ *Well, that's all we have time for.*
  - __ *Well, it's almost time to finish up. Do we all agree?*
  - __ *Okay, time's up. We don't all agree yet, but maybe we can work it out next time.*

Appendix F

Survival: Student Worksheet

Situation

It is approximately 10:00 a.m. in mid-August. You have just crash-landed in the Takla Makan Desert in northwestern China. The small plane, containing the bodies of the pilot and copilot, has completely burned. Only the frame or skeleton of the plane remains. None of the rest of you has been injured.

The pilot was unable to notify anyone of your position before the crash. However, he indicated before the crash that you were 110 km. south-southwest of an oasis, which is the nearest known habitation. He also told you that you were approximately 100 km. off your intended course. It is extremely doubtful that the pilot was able to maintain contact with nearby air stations before the crash; however, as the plane will fail to arrive at the scheduled time, people will begin to suspect a disaster.

The surrounding area is quite flat and, except for occasional shrubs and cacti, appears to be rather barren. The last weather report said that the temperature would reach 44 degrees (C) during the day, which means that the ground-level temperature could approach 50 degrees. The night time temperature, though, could drop almost to the freezing point.

You are dressed in light clothing—short sleeved shirts, short pants or skirts, socks and shoes. Everyone has a handkerchief. Collectively, your pockets contain 18,920 Yuan (Chinese money); ¥102,060; $2,785.20; six packs of cigarettes, and five ball-point pens.

Appendix G

Survival: Experts' Advice & Ranking

Advice

The first and foremost point is do *not move*. People who try to move about in the desert become quickly disoriented, and eventually wander in circles before dying. Survival experts always strongly maintain that when lost, the best course of action is to stay where you are. Rescuers will be systematically looking for the survivors. Should the group move, they may move to a spot that has already been searched.

Ranking:

1. Mirror: absolutely critical as it can reflect far past the horizon and is invaluable as a signaling device.
2. Overcoat: The overcoat reduces dehydration. It keeps hot, dry air away from skin. (It's true!) Keeps one warm at night, too!
3. Water: necessary to replace fluids lost through dehydration, but reducing perspiration and keeping still are more important.
4. Flashlight: the only quick and reliable way of signaling at night. Also, the reflector could be used to signal during the day or to start a fire.
5. Parachute: can be used to make a shelter (shade). Also, it can be easily spotted from the air.
6. Large hunting knife: useful to build a shelter, to cut up cactus to squeeze for water.
7. Pistol: some use as a signaling device and as protection against wild animals, but dangerous if people get irritated. (Group is wise to decide to unload it.)
8. Sunglasses: slightly useful, but shade under parachute or handkerchief is much more useful.
9. Compass: if it can reflect light, it can be used to signal; otherwise, totally useless. To walk out means certain death!
10. Air Map: might be used to start a fire, as toilet paper or a head cover. However, it may be dangerous because it might encourage the group to attempt to walk out.

Chapter 11

Generating Ideas Cooperatively in Writing Class: Prewriting Activities for Junior College Students

Ann F. V. Smith

Cooperative education has been successful in many countries around the world. I've seen it work in Swedish study circles, in North American cooperative literacy groups, and in Aboriginal education projects. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is compatible with cooperative education as both promote interaction through peer exchange. However, cooperative education can take group work one step further. So why not incorporate cooperative learning in EFL writing classrooms?

Tokushima Bunri University provides an example of how cooperative group work has been used with first and second-year English majors in junior college writing classes. Two modules, a first-year grandparent unit and a second-year smoking unit, will provide illustrations of cooperative writing tasks.

Cooperative learning emphasizes not just the language task but also group collaboration and interdependence, individual accountability, and sharing of responsibility. Cooperative group work requires Japanese students, despite their reticence, to speak English in writing class. It requires the teacher to move from center stage to become a facilitator. However, "there is far more to cooperative

Smith, A.F.V. (1999). Generating ideas cooperatively in writing class: Pre-writing activities for junior college students. In D. Kluge, S. McGuire, D. Johnson, & R. Johnson (Eds.), JALT *applied materials: Cooperative learning* (pp. 145-152). Tokyo: Japan Association for Language Teaching.

learning than seating students together. Simply placing students in groups and telling them to work together does not in itself or of itself result in cooperative efforts" (Johnson & Johnson, 1994, p. 5). Therefore, careful preparation and management is necessary.

When planning the cooperative writing modules, language objectives, theme objectives, and learning strategies were considered. A goal of the modules is to help the students work effectively in cooperative groups. Three types of group work were considered. "Formal" cooperative groups, in which students work together for a class (or up to several weeks), as well as "informal" groups, in which students work together for a few minutes or a class period, were incorporated. Cooperative "base" groups were not used in these writing modules as base groups meet together weekly or biweekly throughout a year to assist and encourage learning (see Johnson & Johnson, 1994, and Johnson & Johnson, "What Makes Cooperative Learning Work?" in this volume).

Formal and informal small groups of two to four students are most effective in the modules as my "low-intermediate" learners cannot effectively manage a discussion. The junior college English majors are mostly young women (18 to 20 years) who meet once a week for a 90-minute writing class. On needs assessments, most state they prefer group work to individual work. Heterogeneous, cross-ability groups are productive as more advanced students benefit by explaining vocabulary to others. As the classes are assigned by family name, language skills vary considerably, so even random assignment of groups using number, color, or birthdate produces heterogeneous groups. Sometimes students like to work in homogeneous language groups or free choice groups. However, I usually assign groupings to develop students' cooperative group work skills and to prevent students from always choosing the same partners. The cohesiveness of the members is affected by friendship, status, respect, mutual interests, like/dislike, trust, language level, expectations about who talks, for how long, and in what order (Smith & Mao, 1993; Bell, 1988).

In the writing modules, the theme goals are achieved through selected cooperative tasks which in turn influence the type and amount of group interaction. Firstly students write on a theme for a real purpose—an essay, a letter, a poster, or an article—which is shared with classmates rather than just the teacher. They learn different patterns of rhetorical organization (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994) and develop various writing styles appropriate for different readers and various occasions. The practical boundaries of the task, such as the due date and the length of an assignment, affect students' pace and time management. A short piece, due within a week, will require a much narrower, more specific topic than a longer project.

Secondly, the tasks follow recognized cooperative task strategies, such as those for EFL by Kagan and Kagan (1994) and Olsen and Kagan (1992). These

include the "three-step-interview," "think-pair-share," "roundtable," and "blackboard share," (Kagan & Kagan, 1994, p. 14) which I elucidate in the writing modules. In addition, one activity sheet per group and an open-ended or "ill-structured" task (Cohen, 1994) rather than one with a "right" answer will ensure greater collaboration.

Students need theme language as well as interactive language to function in English in cooperative groups. Basic classroom English (Chinen, 1995) prepares students to interact with the teacher, but this is insufficient. Olsen (1992) and Kagan (1994) have identified extensive language requirements for both task completion and group maintenance.

My students use a language sheet providing easy phrases, for asking for opinions, explanation, or clarification, giving information, agreeing, disagreeing, praising, and so on. This language sheet has proved helpful especially for turn taking, asking for others to contribute, and clarification strategies which are essential for group functioning. However, keeping Japanese students speaking in English in writing class is problematic. In my first year classes, students often use Japanese, but they record and read in English. Second year students manage in English, but may lapse into Japanese when I am observing other groups. This is an ongoing problem.

Once the writing task is set, the teacher plans the lesson and arranges the room to provide a relaxed, supportive environment. In class, she introduces and justifies the cooperative writing unit, explains the goals and collaboration necessary to complete the task, and groups the students. She actively supports the groups, observes the groups, monitors to ensure all students participate and no one dominates, encourages silent students, notes interaction, and adjusts timing as necessary. For language development, she listens and records the common language errors, models correct forms, prompts, paraphrases incomplete or intelligible questions, contributes vocabulary and collects it on the board. To move the task along, she intervenes, clarifies the task, carries ideas and information from one group to another, questions, summarizes, and sometimes joins a group as a participant (Smith & Mao, 1993; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). In addition, she provides positive feedback and encouragement, and adds a sense of humor.

Using Cooperative Techniques for EFL Writing

Cooperative learning is compatible with the process approach to writing as collaborative writing techniques allow students to share ideas and experiences that help them develop their own writing process. Initially my students expect individual assignments and focus more on grammatical competence than on content or process. Yet grammatical competence is but one of the communica-

tive competencies that Scarcella and Oxford (1992) apply to writing proficiency. They show discourse competence in cohesion and coherence; sociolinguistic competence in rhetoric and boundaries; and strategic competence in the writing process are equally important (1992, p. 118). This strategic competence in the writing process enables students to develop a process to suit their own or group style and the required task.

The writing process—prewriting, writing, rewriting, and editing— stresses a dynamic interaction between the writer, reader, and a meaningful text. It has deeply influenced both L1 and more recently L2 writing, but research has shown that L2 writing is definitely more challenging (Raimes, 1995; Zamel, 1987). Silva (1993, p. 668) reviewed many studies concluding: "Though general composing process patterns are similar in L1 and L2, it is clear that L2 composing is more constrained, more difficult, and less effective." Also the composing process is not always linear and may become more circular as the text and topic develop.

The thematic modules introduced here use an umbrella process approach. A series of tasks extend from the central theme like spokes in an umbrella; each task addresses the theme from a different point in more depth to recycle and build information and vocabulary. Students cooperate throughout and synthesize the information into a final piece—like the umbrella fabric. Journals are required for regular writing practice. This umbrella process is, in my experience, more effective with unskilled Japanese writers who need "more time for everything" (Raimes, 1995, p. 250) and often hand in the first draft as the final draft with only grammatical changes.

The Grandparent Module

In this four-part, six class-hour, grandparent theme-based module, students towards the end of the first year sketch the personality and lifestyle of a grandparent. They also describe a specific visit to a grandparent in a letter to a classmate, who then replies. Then students as a group plan and then individually write an essay. The grandparents theme was chosen not only because it introduces a respected family member, but also as it can integrate other issues such as societal change, population trends, accommodation, the treatment of seniors, and so on. The students develop theme language as well as interactive language to function in English in cooperative groups and in individual or whole group activities.

The initial pre-writing can be divided into three sections: the boundaries of a piece of writing (identified under task criteria); the gathering of information; and the synthesis of information and ideas into an outline or plan. Although young Japanese college students have limited knowledge and experience to bring to their writing, they can all brainstorm information about their grandparents. Native speakers can quickly generate relevant information in this way, but EFL students need training, practice, and enough time to do the same. Murray

(1984, p. 20) stresses the advantages of "brainstorming": "Brainstorming shows me what I know, what I need to know and what the connections are between what I know and what I do not know."

The usual way to record such information in both Western and Japanese culture is to make a list or flow chart, which can be elaborated with numbers, letters, or full sentences. However, the web is a popular alternative with my EFL students; the broad topic "grandparents" sits at the centre and sub-topics, such as age, hobbies, lifestyle, or pets, radiate out becoming more complex and detailed. Key words can be circled, vocabulary expanded, and lines can connect ideas. A tree can also be used with the trunk divided into grandmother and grandfather and branches which subdivide general points into details twigs.

After an initial individual brainstorming on a web, students form groups and ask questions—who, what, when, where, why, how—in order to build the grandparent cluster. They are reminded to use the language sheet to assist them and to take turns recording their web onto an overhead plastic transparency. Then, as an essential component of "cooperative brainstorming," students present their transparency to the large group. The other students individually record new ideas and vocabulary in their journals and are encouraged to see similarities and trends.

Individual free writing proved slow and tedious with my first-year college students so the grandparent module now expands the topic with a written conversation "roundtable" (or pair exchange) to expand the topic. Using journals and the vocabulary lists, each student writes a question asking about grandparents. Students pass their journals around the circle, respond, and write a new question ready for another exchange. Finally in a new small group, partners share their journals, and as a group write a paragraph about grandparents using (and editing) sentences from the written conversation. For homework each writes a personal grandparent paragraph in her journal that will be shared and peer edited the next week. For peer editing, first they read their paragraphs aloud to the group. Then together they edit one paragraph at a time with !! for a very good sentence and ** for interesting words. Then they mark ?? for anything unclear, ^^ for tell me more and PP for a specific problem. Finally they check the subject-verb agreement and hand in the paragraph.

During a "think-pair-share" cooperative task on day two, students begin to recount a recent visit to a grandparent by individually brainstorming the questions: who (people), what (event), where (location), when (date), why (purpose), how, and what happened onto a worksheet. Then each interviews a partner, records the details in her journal and reports the findings to a group. A mini-lecture introduces the format for formal and friendly letters, and student groups "brainstorm" words they know for greetings, openings, closings, and salutations on a worksheet. Then each group "blackboard shares" one item for each category.

Students continue the "think-pair-share" by pair planning a letter in their journals. They jointly prepare an introduction to set the scene, plan the visit (in the past tense) and add a closing about future plans. Each student then individually describes her own visit to her grandparent's house as part of a letter written in her journal to a randomly assigned classmate (names are drawn from a hat). I keep an accurate list of partners to avoid future confusion.

In the third class, students bring their draft letters to share in class and they peer edit in small groups using the same criteria as for the paragraph. Then they copy the letter neatly, fold it, and address it to the chosen classmate. Letters go into the mail bag and a student delivers them. Each student writes a reply including three relevant questions asking for details about the partner's visit. The letter writing was popular and generated great interest. The letters were photocopied for marking.

Next in a "three-step-interview," students individually fill in, as best they can, a fact sheet asking for more detailed information on their grandmother. For homework, step two, they visit or by telephone interview Grandma, and complete the fact sheet. We often neglect interviews, thinking EFL students have inadequate English. Although interviews with expert native speakers are best as they can provide excellent real world speaking and listening practice, first language interviews, as with Grandma, can stimulate student motivation, produce interesting insights and renew ties. In some oral cultures, this can also legitimate traditional mechanisms for passing information from elders.

In the fourth class, in an animated third step, each student interviews two other group members about their grandmothers. Then the group jointly completes one worksheet with a series of sentences comparing the grandmothers' childhood and youth to their own. Initially students need prompting as they find the first few questions are quite difficult as they must combine their knowledge of the grandmothers, women's roles, Japanese history, and so on. The facilitator needs to monitor the group work carefully to ensure the worksheet is circulating and all are involved. Finally, the group (taking turns) presents the completed sentences on a transparency.

In preparation for the final essay, the teacher should review essay format with the students who then "group plan" an essay about grandmother. In pairs, they do an open-ended sentence combining activity about a grandmother which stresses the importance of compound sentences and coherence. Students individually write their essays following their group plan. Finally, they peer edit their essays in groups and combine some of their simple sentences into compound sentences. They revise the essays for homework ready to hand in for final marking. In hindsight the five-paragraph essay in this unit was too long and either a three-body paragraph poster or a four-paragraph essay would be more suitable.

The essays can also be published in a booklet on grandmothers. Learner teams can be responsible to prepare the covers, the introduction, the table of contents, and arrange the items. Another group can copy, fold, and distribute the booklet.

Conclusion

Through cooperative learning, the teacher carefully plans a theme-based task which takes group work one step further into interdependent learning where each student is accountable for writing together with her peers. By encouraging students to pool knowledge and background resources, they think more critically and synthesize information to develop a more in-depth understanding of a particular topic, the language necessary for writing about the topic, and the sharing process.

To ensure cooperative group work, the facilitator has to monitor the groups' functioning carefully, and encourage students to collaborate and use their language skills rather than to rely on the dominant or more advanced student. Students need to understand the process of sharing learning is equally as important as completing the task, just as the process of writing and editing is as important as handing in the final product. Students soon realize that any student can be called on to answer and, as assignments are handwritten, that the teacher can recognize different handwriting. They also need reminding to stay in English and to keep the group functioning effectively.

The modules presented here combine an umbrella process which addresses the writing theme from various angles through cooperative tasks. This offers an alternative which stresses real content and increases the amount and variety of meaningful information transmitted through sharing and oral interaction. The pre-writing component is essential for EFL writing students to develop ideas and vocabulary on a topic. It links well with cooperative group tasks even at high beginner to low intermediate levels. It helps ensure success and build both individual confidence and group responsibility and trust.

Teachers who want to maximize cooperative EFL learning need to become well versed in cooperative techniques as well as language acquisition and group interaction. They need to invest time not only to develop their own tasks, but also to seek writing texts which offer materials that can be adapted to cooperative techniques. They need to encourage learners, but also need to monitor the groups, reflect, and adjust future activities. Introducing cooperative group work is a gradual process as Japanese students will always value individual assignments. But a cooperative, collaborative classroom can include individual and large group activities, can inspire the content, and greatly improves the final product in writing class.

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Chapter 12

Implementation of Buzz Learning to English Language Education in a Junior High School

Inoue Tetsuro

In this paper, I report the current state of the application of a Japanese cooperative learning technique in English education for Japanese junior high schools.

I believe that introducing cooperative learning techniques to English language education will be useful and beneficial. It can be used as a device to overcome negative elements of traditional language education in Japan. Currently, in almost all Japanese public junior high schools, students study basic English for three years, from the ages of 13 to 15. Even under these circumstances where English has been introduced early in the students' lives, English teachers still have difficulties in the class and the reasons behind these problems, I believe, relate to the way English is taught.

English Language Education and Problems before WWII

Period Where Students Learned Subjects in English

The earliest application of English education in Japan is accredited to Yukichi Fukuzawa. During a visit to the United States in 1886, Fukuzawa realized the serious need for English language learning for Japanese students who at that

Inoue, T. (1999). Implementation of Buzz Learning to English language education in a junior high school. In D. Kluge, S. McGuire, D. Johnson, & R. Johnson (Eds.), *JALT applied materials: Cooperative learning* (pp. 153-162). Tokyo: Japan Association for Language Teaching.

time shied away from new concepts. In the Meiji era (1868-1912), Western study had been introduced and, except for medicine and law, subjects were taught in English. At that time, visiting foreign teachers of higher education gave lessons in English, and even some Japanese teachers gave their lessons in English. However, Japanese teachers had experienced teaching foreign languages previously, since Chinese had been taught in Japanese schools. For teaching Chinese, the Japanese invented a system of tokenizing or labeling the words in a sentence in order to understand the Chinese. To each word in a sentence, in the order the word occurred within the sentence, a token was appended. Each token described characteristics about each word. This system was purely mechanical and completely disregarded pronunciation. In many instances the same mechanism was applied to the teaching of English since word order in Chinese is symmetric with that of English. Consider the following examples from a textbook of that time:

The (1) man (3) has a (2) whip.

(6) All (1) you (5) will (4) have (3) to (2) do (9) is (8) to (7) try.

The English pronunciation of Japanese teachers was quite strange. A report describes some unusual pronunciations such as *to-n-gyu* for "tongue" and *a-ni-ki* for "unique." The number of Japanese teachers who could give lessons in Japanese—translated from English sources—gradually increased. In the beginning of the 20th century, teaching lessons in Japanese was approved and English was not considered as an essential means of study; rather it became one of the academic subjects like geography, history, physics, or chemistry.

Examinations and English

In the Meiji era, high educational credentials were a passport to a successful career. Public education had rapidly spread to all segments of society and an increasing number of people desired to enter higher education while the hereditary system was collapsing. In response, the entry criteria for higher education institutions became tougher. The questions on the selection exam became more difficult. Some example sentences in the reference book for an entrance examination at that time are:

"It is in man as in soils, where sometimes there is a vein of gold which the owner knows not of."

"Leaves are to the plant what lungs are to the animal"

Difficult exam questions focused on reading comprehension of given passages. Factors such as pronunciation, English cultural background, cultural value, or even elementary grammar were disregarded.

In 1922, Harold E. Palmer came to Japan and introduced the "oral method" to improve the current teaching methods. With a worsening relationship between the United States of America and Japan in the 1930s, English became a "hostile language," which became excluded from the educational field and was taught only in a limited number of places.

English Language Education and Problems after WWII

In March 1946 immediately after the end of the Second World War, the first American educational mission was dispatched to occupied Japan and produced several policies to normalize and democratize postwar public education in Japan. English education was paramount, and led the new trend in education.

The educational ideals of English can be seen in the proposal for a course of study:

(1) It is important to get into the habit of thinking in English.

(2) The primary skills are listening and speaking in English.

(3) The secondary skills are reading and writing in English.

(4) It is important to understand English-speaking people, especially their manners, customs, and ordinary life.

In addition to the points above, the course of study underscores that it is not appropriate to put more than thirty people in a class and the ideal is to have one lesson every day and six lessons per week. However reality did not meet with these ideals. The class size was generally greater than fifty and the number of instructional classes decreased gradually from six to a low of three per week within only a few years (currently it stands at four lessons per week).

During the higher education boom following the postwar economic growth, English became a perfect examination subject. English proficiency was a shortcut to a job with a big firm. While there was a decrease in the number of English lessons, there was an increase in demand for schools to teach a greater number of subjects in a short period of time. Teaching methods for big classes were regimented. In essence, the teacher instructed and the student learned, in limited one way interaction between student and teacher. Entrance examinations focused on descriptive questions, hence teachers concentrated on the writing and the reading comprehension of passages. Thus students had limited opportunity to practice conversation and learn expressions used in real life and had to deal with advanced grammar and complex texts to satisfy exam requirements. They even were asked questions about pronunciation and intonation in written form.

The requirement that students had to learn advanced subject matter in a limited amount of time resulted in an increasing number of students being left

behind. Moreover, parents paid to send their children to cram schools and/or hired private tutors and bought extra teaching materials to be used at home due to the increasing importance of English learning. The result was a resurrection of the pre-Meiji era structure of learning English.

The Current English Language Education Situation

Under the circumstances described above, many students lose their confidence and their interest in learning English. Even for pupils who are able to keep up with advanced learning, it is difficult to maintain a learning balance.

First-year junior high school students who learn English at the outset with a high degree of willingness and enthusiasm get tired of having to learn English words by heart and of being required to complete large amounts of homework. Gradually they neglect their English studies. The more irritated and uneasy they feel about the fact that they are behind the others, the more apathetic they become about learning English. In fact, some of these students keep their faces down on their desk for the duration of the 50 minute class while others talk to other classmates and disrupt the class. Demotivated and motivated students coexist in the same class. The normal flow of the lesson is broken due to the teacher's continuous scolding and the students' chatting. Hence, there is a definite need to improve the interpersonal relationships among the students and teachers in the classroom. Therefore as a means of solving these problems, I decided to introduce "Buzz Learning" based on cooperative principles to my lessons.

Aims of Introducing Buzz Learning

A Description of Buzz Learning

Yoshihisa Shioda, a pedagogical psychologist, proposed *Buzz Learning* in 1962. Buzz Learning is a cooperative learning theory of how to teach using small groups. It focuses on the premise that the basis of learning depends on the interactive human relationships of the learners. Buzz Learning operates on the principle—based on actual classroom data—that the meaningful use of these interpersonal relationships makes independent and effective learning possible.

Buzz Learning was first introduced as a solution to worsening educational circumstances in which junior high school students showed no interest in learning and were disruptive or did not participate in the lesson. Overwhelming courses and the coexistence of demotivated and motivated students in the same classroom resulted in problems similar to those of English education in the Meiji era.

Aims in Introducing Buzz Learning

My aims in introducing Buzz Learning to my English classes were:

(1) Learners link up in groups for the same purposes. In the process of acting as groups, they encourage and help each other.

(2) Learners work on learning tasks, supporting individuals with their weak points and accommodating differences in ability.

(3) The learning environment is such that indispensable communication training in language learning can take place.

(4) Characteristics attributed to Japanese learners such as shyness and group consciousness are avoidable to some degree.

(5) Groups of learners produce an atmosphere where they have spontaneous responsibility for their own learning under controlled conditions.

In short, my aims were to inspire those refusing to learn, to encourage those concentrating on only writing and comprehending to participate actively in lively English learning again, and to determine to what degree we could overcome the educational imbalance caused by the overwhelming curriculum and competitive examinations.

Examples of English Lessons Using Buzz Learning

Measures Devised to Deal with a Problematic School/Student Environment

The junior high school introduced in this paper is in a suburb of a middle-sized city. The region consists of a business district, residential areas, and fields. The junior high school is of average size for such a school in a Japanese medium-sized town, with 13 classes and 500 students in a three year course.

The area has been urbanized and is attracting people from other cities as well as large capital investments. With the number of large department stores rapidly growing, the number of instances of juvenile shoplifting as well as teens prowling the city at night are increasing.

There are various problems with the junior high school students that have worsened in the last three years. Even though over half the students go to cram schools, the students seldom have basic knowledge and learning habits. Quite a few have low confidence in their grades. The motivation of the students to learn is very low. Some students do not even bring a textbook or paper to the classroom, some do no homework and fail to prepare for the next class, others chat during class. There is no academic atmosphere in the class.

English classes are no exception. The students do not speak, read, write, or express themselves. They don't do anything so that the proper lessons are not effectively carried out. At the beginning of the second year 40% of the students cannot write all the alphabet completely. Over 20% are not able to write basic words such as *book*, *dog*, or *desk*. Even quite a few advanced students keep

their faces down on the desk for the duration of the 50 minute class. The teachers are exhausted from speaking loudly and repeatedly scolding students throughout the lessons.

To prepare myself for the above situation, I disciplined myself to be a teacher who considers the students' viewpoints and imagines how they think. I considered several points:

(1) Do not be one-sided and just scold the student—try to also see the student's perspective.

(2) Do not get angry with students who did not prepare for the lesson, like forgetting to clean the blackboard.

(3) Do not feel sad despite the fact that the students do not have the textbook on their desks.

(4) Do not make sarcastic remarks by saying that even elementary school students at least bring a pencil.

(5) Make a consistent effort to listen to the students even if I feel disturbed by what I am hearing.

I understand the insistence of the students who suddenly scream in the middle of the class to try to show their existence. I encourage students with low self-esteem to answer questions and I praise them for their good points. If someone does not understand, I teach them individually. After just a month, the class environment improved with this new approach and the students changed their behavior. They realized that the teacher comes to class to teach them English rather than to tell them off. The realization that the teacher is there to aid them helps the student to trust the teacher. Under these circumstances cooperative learning is ready to be practiced.

Three Examples of Buzz Learning in English Class

Practice for Rapid Reading—A Learning Activity in Pairs

This section introduces a cooperative learning pairwork exercise in reading textbooks. The aims for the students are as follows:

(1) To foster understanding by reading a chunk of meaning as quickly as possible.

(2) To naturally learn essential phonetics of English.

(3) To repeatedly practice appropriate sound volume and adequate mouth movements.

(4) To improve reading aloud skills through continuous practice.

(5) To enjoy reading English and feel satisfied with the task in a serious and comfortable environment with a chosen partner.

Procedure:

(1) Practice basic pronunciation by using the teacher's pronunciation as the model (whole class).

(2) Put slash marks in the text according to breath groups (teacher should instruct how to do this first).

(3) Individually practice each breath group in rapid reading.

(4) Pair students according to the students' relationships and reading abilities.

(5) Loudly read fixed passages in the book sentence by sentence. In this step students should listen to one another to check articulation of words, reading smoothly until the end or comma, and being aware of breath groups.

(6) Point out students' weak points and correct them. Students should call a teacher if necessary.

(7) After repeating this sort of exercise, each student measures the speed of reading of each passage. They do it several times and record their best results on a card. The outcomes of the implementation in cooperative rapid reading practice are:

   (a) The students start to set clear goals and seriously deal with articulation practice.
   (b) Taught adequately over time slower students become more willing to learn. The slow students tend to make more progress.
   (c) For those who can read to some degree, clarify any unclear points and help to improve their ability. These students will also have teaching experience so they can participate in the class more spontaneously.
   (d) With an independent learning experience, the students get used to autonomously doing other tasks in English.

Refined Translation: Practical Use of the Basic Buzz Learning Theory

In the limited time available for English lessons, a translation task from English to Japanese can be carried out through a word replacement drill. For this exercise there is a need to attempt to positively draw out high level skills to refine the translations, taking into account the reading's cultural aspects and the way of thinking expressed in the reading selection.

After the students have practiced reading aloud with a partner and using simple grammar passages in a small group, an attempt to refine the translation is made. Here are some of the goals of the exercise:

(1) To help students increase their comprehension by common sense, experience, and the knowledge of other students.

(2) To perform complicated tasks that have to be done by more than one person through group discussion.

(3) To complete tasks by asking questions.

(4) To enable students to explain their opinions.

(5) To spontaneously learn with intellectual desire.

(6) To experience the effectiveness of group learning.

Students in a group individually translate an English passage assigned by their teacher in their notebooks. The group members then put their desks together and discuss the translation. Discussions are guided by group leaders who call the other members to discuss in order. The selected student presents his or her translation and points out unclear parts. The group progresses towards the correct translation through discussion. Consider the set of sample sentences followed by an example of a possible discussion:

Sentence to Translate: *They are not shy when they are born. But they become shy because they want to be good boys and girls.*
Group leader: So, Mr. Tsuneji, please introduce your translation.
Tsuneji: (Reads his translation) I did not quite understand the actual meaning of "because they want to be good boys and girls."
Group leader: Is there anyone who translates this part differently?
Yoshio: I think it means that they have to behave themselves.
Group leader: Any other opinions?
Mariko: I have different opinion. It expresses that if one does something different from others he/she feels ashamed so he/she tries to act as others do.
Group leader: How about all of you?
Haruo: Well, you mean, it describes the tendency of group consciousness, like many Japanese do.
Mariko: Yes.
Group leader: Well then. Is her translation all right?
Group members: Agree.
Group leader: Shall we go on to the next sentence?

Afterward, each group presents their translation to the whole class. In case there is a difference in the translation, the teacher adds explanations to the student notes. The students then make adjustments in reference to these notes to their translations.

The instruction has been successful in changing the students' learning mechanisms. The discussion in the group provides an opportunity for the slow learn-

ers who have a good sense of expression to demonstrate their ability. The students even start to use a few dictionaries for any new expression they came across and hence develop the ability to use a dictionary. Through these student-centered activities, the students have learned to smoothly understand detailed instructions such as "write words carefully," "do not disturb others," and "review what you have learned today."

Application in Nonacademic School Activities: A Practical Application During a School Excursion.

In the final year at Japanese junior high schools there is a school excursion in which all students stay together for a couple of days. For this excursion, we created an activity with the aim of learning to what degree the students can communicate in English. The activity required students to speak to foreigners. The students were to make use of the things they had learned the previous two years. The object of the exercise was for students to interview foreigners about their first impressions of Japan. The students in principle ask a question of foreigners and receive a message back detailing their impressions. The aim of this activity was to cooperatively complete the task within a group consisting of 4 or 5 pupils as well as to challenge each individual's English ability.

Before the school excursion the students practiced greeting, asking questions, jotting down notes, and saying thanks. The teachers encouraged and motivated them. While some felt hesitant to speak with foreigners, some were optimistically interested in the task. It is important to motivate such students since they would then continue to have an independent learning habit.

The students cooperatively constructed sentences which they were to use in the interview; they also deepened their own understanding of Japanese culture and cooperatively refined questions. Because of the real-life purpose of having to speak in English, they learned seriously and positively.

When everything was ready, the students practiced dialogues in turns. The amazing thing was that they did it fairly, according to each individual's English ability. The Japanese and English teachers of English helped them as well.

That year we met many foreigners in Asakusa (Tokyo) and in Yokohama. Even though not all of them were native speakers of English, most of them spoke English fluently. In most of the cases, they willingly responded to the students saying "Excuse me."

For the students, realizing the value of English as a communication tool is a very significant and a joyful experience. There is now confidence in a future exchange program and for English learning in high school. These activities require a huge effort in preparation. The fundamental issue is how well the projects can enhance the students' motivation. Students seriously deal with the tasks and make an effort to succeed for the sake of concrete goals. The activity

in the school excursion was meaningful to foster cooperative learning and give an opportunity to improve broad English ability.

Conclusion

We could recognize several characteristic changes and results by introducing Buzz Learning in the English class:

(1) The students' reading ability has dramatically improved.

(2) The students understand the tasks they are performing and their ability to learn by themselves has been also augmented.

(3) There are fewer students with an inferiority complex.

(4) The students learn out of curiosity and interest rather than just obligation.

As already mentioned, there are numerous problems with English education in Japan. I can however say that the difficulty of English learning has been reduced in my school. This method, which focuses on positive motivation of the students coupled with the fostering of good interpersonal relationships between the student and the teacher, is a successful mechanism to overcome English education problems at the junior high school level in Japan.

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SECTION V

Evaluation
評価

Chapter 13

Cooperative Learning and Assessment

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In this article we shall briefly discuss some major assessment issues (purpose, focus, setting, stakes, and stakeholders of assessments), the procedures used in assessment, and how cooperative learning may be used in using the assessment procedures.

Assessment Issues

Instruction, learning, assessment, and evaluation are all interrelated. Teachers are responsible for instructing students to create learning, which is assessed in order to (a) verify learning is taking place and (b) improve the effectiveness of instruction. Periodically, assessment is used to judge the quality and quantity of learning and award grades. Instruction, learning, and assessment are so intertwined that it is hard to separate them.

Johnson, D.W. & Johnson, R.T. (1992). Cooperative learning and assessment. In D. Kluge, S. McGuire, D. Johnson, & R. Johnson (Eds.), *JALT applied materials: Cooperative learning* (pp. 164-178). Tokyo: Japan Association for Language Teaching.

The assessment issues educators must deal with include the purposes of assessments, the focus of assessments, the setting in which assessments take place, the stakes involved, and the stakeholders (see Table 1; see also Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Cohen, 1980).

Table 1. *Assessment Issues*

Purpose	Focus	Setting	Stakes	Shareholders
Diagnostic	Process of Learning	Artificial (Classroom)	Low	Students-Parents
Formative	Process of Instruction	Authentic (Real-World)	High	Teachers
Summative	Outcomes of Learning			Administrators
	Outcomes of Instruction			Policy-Makers
				Colleges, Employers

Purposes

The purposes for assessing student performances include:

1. Diagnosing students' present level of knowledge and skills. Diagnostic assessments are conducted at the beginning of an instructional unit, course, semester, or year to determine the present level of knowledge, skill, interest, and attitudes of a student, group, or class (Hughes, 1989; Alderson, Krahnke, & Stansfield, 1987). Such information is useful in setting realistic but challenging learning goals.
2. Monitoring students' progress toward learning goals to help form the instructional program. Formative assessments are conducted periodically throughout the instructional unit, course, semester, or year to monitor progress and provide feedback concerning progress toward learning goals.
3. Provide data to judge the final level of students' learning. Summative assessments are conducted at the end of an instructional unit or semester to provide information about the final quality and quantity of student achievement and/or the success of the instructional program.

Focus

Diagnostic, formative, and summative assessments may focus on the processes of learning and instructional and/or the outcomes of learning and instruction.

The student performances often measured by teachers in formal educational situations actually measured are (a) academic learning (what students know, understand, and retain over time); (b) reasoning (the quality of students' reasoning, conceptual frameworks, use of the scientific method and problem-solving, and construction of academic arguments); (c) skills and competencies (oral and written communication skills, teamwork skills, research skills, skills of organizing and analyzing information, technology skills, skills of coping with stress and adversity, conflict resolution skills); (d) attitudes (a love of learning, commitment to being a responsible citizen, desire to read, liking scientific reasoning, self-respect, liking of diversity, commitment to making the world a better place); and (e) work habits (completing work on time, using time wisely, meeting responsibilities, striving for quality work, continuously improving one's work, striving to add value to each job one does).

The setting in which the assessments may take place include the classroom or more authentic settings. Authentic assessments require students to demonstrate desired skills or procedures in "real life" contexts. Low-stake assessments tend to be diagnostic and formative assessments. High-stake assessments tend to be summative assessments that partially determine students' futures, such as college admission tests. Finally, the stakeholders in assessment include the students and their parents, teachers, administrators, and policymakers.

Assessment Procedures

Traditionally, assessment procedures have been quite limited. What has been lacking in traditional assessment is a systematic way of collecting and reporting such evidence.

Times have changed. The diverse assessment procedures noted below are well developed and may be used effectively as part of any instructional program. Each has its strengths and weaknesses. Each can be integrated into ongoing instructional programs and managed when they are used as part of cooperative learning.

In conducting assessments there are a variety of procedures that may be used (see Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Hughes, 1989). One procedure is student conferences. Goal-setting conferences establish learning goals and learning contracts, progress-assessment conferences review the student's progress in achieving his or her goals, and postevaluation conferences explain the student's accomplishments to interested stakeholders. One of the most interesting procedures for post-evaluation conferences is student-led conferences with parents. Other assessment procedures include standardized and teacher-constructed tests, compositions and presentations, individual and group projects, portfolios, observing student performances, interviewing students, attitude questionnaires,

simulations, student management teams, and record keeping (attendance, homework, participation, and extra-credit) (Johnson & Johnson, 1996).

Most of these assessment procedures can only be used long term in the context of cooperative learning. The problems in using the above assessment procedures include the amount of labor involved, the different modalities utilized, the diverse outcomes focused on, the potential for bias inherent in the use of more subjective assessment procedures, and the lack of student understanding of the criteria and rubrics being used to assess their work. The use of cooperative learning groups in the assessment process generally solves these problems.

Examples of Using Cooperative Learning in Assessments

Cooperative learning groups present unique and important opportunities and benefits for instruction, assessment, and the reporting of results. In understanding these opportunities and benefits, it may be helpful to address a number of ways in which cooperative learning may be used in assessment and reporting practices (see Johnson & Johnson [1996] for a more complete coverage of procedures).

Checking Homework in Cooperative Groups

In order to assess the quality of students' homework daily, a procedure can be implemented to check homework quickly at the beginning of each class period (Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1993). Students are requested to bring their completed homework to class and demonstrate that they understand how to do it correctly.

The cooperative procedure is as follows. Students enter the classroom and meet in their cooperative learning groups. The groups should be heterogeneous in terms of ability. One member (the runner) goes to the teacher's desk, picks up the group's folder, and hands out materials in the folder to the appropriate members. Members compare answers and quiz each other on the homework assignment. The cooperative goal is to ensure that all group members bring their completed homework to class and understand how to do it correctly. Two roles are assigned: explainer (explains step-by-step how to complete the homework correctly) and accuracy checker (verifies that the explanation is accurate, encourages, and provides coaching if needed). The explainer reads the first part of the assignment and explains step-by-step how to complete it correctly. The other group members check for accuracy. The roles are rotated clockwise around the group so that each member does an equal amount of explaining. The group should concentrate on the parts of the assignments that members did not understand. Any questions members have about completing the assignment correctly are answered. The runner records how much of the assignment each member completed. At the end of the assigned review time,

the members' homework is placed in the group's folder and the runner returns it to the teacher's desk.

There is an alternative to this procedure. Students are assigned to cooperative learning pairs. The teacher randomly picks questions from the homework assignment. One student explains the correct answer step-by-step. The other student listens, checks for accuracy, and prompts the explainer if he or she does not know the answer. Roles are switched for each question. These procedures can be used for both formative and summative assessment.

Observational Procedures

While the students work together in cooperative learning groups, teachers systematically gather observation data about the quality of the explanations and intellectual interchange occurring among group members (Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1993). Observation data may be gathered by the use of formal observation schedules (on which the frequency of behaviors are tallied), checklists, rating scales, or anecdotal impressions. These data are available for formative evaluation and for indices of such outcomes as effort and higher level reasoning.

Observational procedures are aimed at describing and recording behavior as it occurs. From observing students' behaviors, teachers gain the information needed to make judgments about the current competence of the students and the success of the instructional program. To observe students engaging in such outcomes of instruction as (a) reasoning, (b) problem solving, and (c) metacognitive thinking, students must be observed "thinking out loud" in cooperative learning groups. In essence, cooperative learning groups are "windows into students' minds." Teachers assign students to small cooperative groups and give them an assignment. As the groups work, the teacher moves from group to group listening to the students interact with each other. From listening to students explain how to complete the assignment, the teacher can assess what students understand and what they do not understand, the level of cognitive reasoning they are using, and the strategies they are using to approach the assignment. In addition, the teacher can assess how frequently metacognitive strategies are being used. A variety of observation sheets are given in Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec (1993).

Many times students may be able to give the "correct" answer to a question without understanding the principles and theories on which the answer is based. Correct answers on a test and completed homework assignments tell teachers very little about students' reasoning processes and understanding.. The only way teachers can be sure that students really understand the subject being studied is by listening to students explain what they know to each other step by step. To do so for each class member, the students must be working in coopera-

tive (not competitive or individualistic) learning groups. These procedures are best used for formative evaluation purposes.

Student involvement in evaluation may be facilitated by teaching students how to observe and gather useful data on the interaction among group members. One observer may be appointed. Cooperative learning groups offer a unique opportunity for immediate diagnosis of level of understanding, feedback from peers, and remediation to correct misunderstandings and fill in gaps in students' understanding. Training students to observe each other's cognitive reasoning and strategies for solving problems and completing assignments will facilitate the cycle of immediate diagnosis-feedback-remediation.

Assessing the Quality of Social Skills

In addition to evaluating efforts to achieve academically, teachers need to assess and evaluate students' efforts to work together cooperatively. The procedure for assessing students use of social skills is as follows (Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1993):

1. The teacher must decide which social skill is going to be emphasized and make practicing it one of the objectives of the instructional unit. Every cooperative instructional unit is a social skills lesson as well as an academic one.
2. The teacher operationally define the social skill. It is often helpful to have the class generate the list of nonverbal actions and verbal phrases that demonstrate the skill.
3. The teacher teaches the social skill to the students, for example, how to encourage group members. The skill may be modeled, explained step by step, and practiced by the students before the instructional unit begins. Students are informed that use of the social skill during the instructional unit is expected.
4. The teacher prepares the observation form, appoints observers, and explains the observation form to observers. There are three possible observers: the teacher, students, and visitors.
5. The observers use the observation form to monitor the interactions among group members while they work on the academic lesson, paying special attention to the targeted social skill. The observations provide objective data about the interaction among group members. The behavior of group members is observed so that students may be given feedback about their participation in the group and so that inferences can be made about the ways in which the group is functioning.
6. Each group member may fill out a checklist or questionnaire about their actions in the group in order to assess how often and how well they individually performed the targeted social skill and other small group skills.

7. The observer reports to the group the information gathered and group members report their impressions as to how they behaved. The observer summarizes his or her observations in a clear and useful manner and describes them to the group as feedback. The observer then helps group members make inferences from the observations about how well the group functioned, how frequently and well each member engaged in the targeted skill, and how the interaction among group members should be modified to make it more effective. The observer ensures that all group members receive positive feedback about their actions in the group.
8. The group members reflect on and analyze the effectiveness of their use of social skills. Reflection is needed in order to discover what helped and hindered them in completing the academic assignment and whether specific actions had a positive or negative effect. After small group processing, there is whole class processing in which the teacher shares his or her feedback to the class as a whole.
9. The group members set goals for improving their competence in engaging in the social skills during the next group meeting. Members discuss the goals and publicly commit to achieving them.

Interview Procedures

In addition to observing students' work, teachers will wish to interview students systematically to determine the level of learning, cognitive reasoning, problem solving, and metacognitive thinking (Johnson & Johnson, 1996). Interviews may take place in the following procedure. The teacher assigns students to cooperative learning groups that are heterogeneous in terms of ability. The groups are given a set of questions in the first class of the unit and instructed to prepare all group members to respond to the questions. Each class period the groups are given time to practice their responses to the questions. In the fourth and fifth class periods the teacher randomly chooses students from each group and gives each one an oral examination.

In conducting the interview, the teacher joins a group and randomly selects one member to explain the answer to a randomly selected question. The teacher poses a series of questions, listens to student answers, and probes for more information. The teacher tries to activate the student's background knowledge and promote more complex language and expression. When that member finishes responding to the question, other group members can add to the answer. The teacher judges the answer to be "adequate" or "inadequate." The teacher then asks another member a different question. This procedure is repeated until all questions have been answered or until the teacher judges the group to be inadequately prepared. In this case the group has to return to the assignments and practice until they are better prepared. The teacher provides guidance by identifying particular weak-

nesses and strengths in the member's answers. All group members are given equal credit for successfully completing the interview.

Paper-and-Pencil Achievement Tests

Tests may be given both to assess and increase student learning. There are two advantages of cooperative learning groups in administrating traditional tests (Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1993; Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991). First, allowing students to work together before an assessment can level the playing field by enabling students to compare understandings and ensure that they all have the same background knowledge to prepare for the assessment. Second, allowing students to work in groups immediately following the assessment (a) allows each group member to discover what he or she did and did not understand, (b) allows each group member to discover where the information required to answer the questions is in the course materials, and (c) allows the group to provide remediation to members who did not understand the course content covered in the test.

The sequence of using cooperative learning groups in testing is (a) students work together in cooperative learning groups to review the material to be covered in the test, (b) each student takes the test individually, and (c) students retake the test in the cooperative learning group (Group Review, Individual Test, Group Test) (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1993). Students are assigned to cooperative learning groups that are heterogeneous in terms of ability. The groups study together during the unit. In the fourth class meeting the groups meet to ensure that all group members know and understand the material on which they will be tested.

An examination is given in the fifth class meeting. The students take the test individually, making two copies of their answers. They hand in one answer sheet to the teacher (who then scores the answers). If all members of the group score above a present criterion (such as 90 percent correct) on the individual tests, then each member receives a designated number (such as five) of bonus points. The bonus points are added to their individual score to determine their individual grade for the test. The students keep the second answer sheet. After all members have finished the test, the group meets to take the test again. Their task is to answer each question correctly. The cooperative goal is for all group members to understand the material covered by the test. For any answer that they disagree about or are unsure of, they are required to find the page and paragraph in the text that contains the answer. The teacher randomly observes the groups to check that they are following the procedure.

Peer Editing Of Compositions

Students are assigned to cooperative groups and are assigned the task of writing a composition or report (Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Johnson, Johnson, &

Holubec, 1993). Each student writes his or her own composition. The assignment is structured cooperatively by informing students that all group members must sign a statement verifying that each member's composition meets the criteria set by the teacher. Each group member will receive two scores for the composition. The first is based on the quality of his or her composition. The second is based on the total number of errors made by the group (the number of errors in their composition plus the number of errors in their groupmates' compositions).

A typical procedure follows. First, the teacher assigns students to cooperative learning pairs with at least one good reader in each pair. The task of writing individual compositions is given. Students are informed that the criterion for success is a well-written composition by each student. Depending on the instructional objectives, the compositions may be evaluated for grammar, punctuation, organization, content, or other criteria set by the teacher.

Second, Student A describes to Student B what he or she is planning to write. Student B listens carefully, probes with a set of questions, and outlines Student A's composition. The written outline is given to Student A. This procedure is then reversed with Student B describing what he or she is going to write and Student A listening and completing an outline of Student B's composition, which is then given to Student B.

Third, each student researches the material he or she needs to write the compositions, keeping an eye out for material useful to his or her partner. If one student does not have the skills required to use reference materials and the library effectively, the partner teaches him or her how to do so.

Fourth, the two students work together to write the first paragraph of each composition to ensure that they both have a clear start on their compositions. Each student then writes his or her composition individualistically. When completed, the students proofread each other's compositions, making corrections in capitalization, punctuation, spelling, language usage, topic sentence usage, and other aspects of writing specified by the teacher. Suggestions for revision are explained. Each student then revises his or her composition, making the suggested revisions. The two students then reread each other's compositions and sign their names (indicating that they personally guarantee that no errors exist in the composition).

While the students work, the teacher monitors the pairs, intervening where appropriate to help students master the needed writing and cooperative skills. When the composition is completed, the students discuss how effectively they worked together (listing the specific actions they engaged in to help each other), plan what behaviors they are going to emphasize in the next writing pair, and thank each other for the help and assistance received.

Oral Presentations

When students are required to give class presentations, the task is to prepare and conduct a presentation on an assigned topic (Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991). The cooperative goal is for all members to learn the material being presented and gain experience in making presentations. First, the teacher assigns students to groups of four, gives each group a topic, and requires them to prepare one presentation that each group member can give in its entirety. The presentation should be given within a certain time frame and should be supported with visuals and/or active participation by the audience. Second, the groups are given time to prepare and rehearse. All group members should be able to give the presentation. Third, the class is divided into four sections (one in each corner of the classroom). One member of each group goes to each section. Each student makes a presentation to his or her section. The audience rates the performance on a reaction form provided by the teacher. A presentation is evaluated on the basis of the degree to which it was (a) scholarly and informative, (b) interesting, concise, and easy to follow, (c) involving (audience active, not passive), (d) intriguing (audience interest in finding out more on their own), and (e) organized (has introduction, body, conclusion). In addition, the teacher adds criteria uniquely aimed at the purposes of the presentation. At the end of the presentation, one copy of the rating form is given to the teacher and one copy is given to the presenter. The teacher systematically observes part of all presentations. Fourth, the groups meet to evaluate how effectively each member made the presentation. Remedial help is given to any member who had problems presenting.

Remember, any performance given by a student, whether it is a speech, a musical performance, a science demonstration, a dramatic presentation, or a videotape project, can be assessed and evaluated by peers as well as a teacher.

Portfolios

Portfolios are used to accumulate student work over time to show how students are progressing (Johnson & Johnson, 1996). The portfolio allows the student to present his or her work as a whole. The portfolio then allows teachers and other interested audiences to consider multiple sources of data when they examine what students know and can do. A much broader concept of learner's strengths and needs can be formulated. Both the teacher and the student need to be satisfied that the portfolio offers a true representation of the student's understanding and abilities.

While the portfolio reflects what the student is capable of given the editing and feedback from classmates, parents, and teachers, it does not reflect how well the student can write on demand. The teacher, therefore, may wish to give a test in which students are given a certain amount of class time (such as 30

minutes) to write an essay. The extent to which the writing skills learned in constructing the portfolio transfer to new writing demands can then be assessed. Portfolios should show mastery of basic skills and procedures that can be used and applied in new situations.

The cooperative procedure for using portfolios is similar to that used for peer editing of compositions (Johnson & Johnson, 1996). The task is for each student to create a portfolio. The criteria for success is a well-constructed portfolio by each student. The cooperative goal is for all group members to verify that each member's portfolio is perfect according to the criteria set by the teacher. Students receive an individual score or evaluation on the quality of their portfolio. The teacher can also give a group score based on the total number of errors in their portfolios made by the group. Each student is individually accountable to create his or her own portfolio. The procedure is as follows (Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991):

1. The teacher assigns students to groups with at least one good reader and writer to each group.
2. Each item that may potentially be included in the portfolio is created in the context of the cooperative learning groups. Compositions, for example, go through a peer editing process to ensure that they meet the criteria set by the teacher. This peer editing process is key, as while the portfolio is an expression of the quality of work of each student, assessing and giving feedback to groupmates about their portfolios provides skills and experiences that go beyond the feedback received from others.
3. Each member chooses representative items they think should be in their portfolio.
4. Each member explains his or her portfolio to the other members.
5. The group members provide each student with feedback concerning the quality of their presentation and the wisdom of the choice of the items.
6. If possible, a chart or graph is drawn showing the progress the student has made.
7. A test is given in which students individually create a product similar to those in the portfolio to demonstrate mastery of the skills and competencies reflected in the portfolio.

Academic Controversy and Critical Thinking

Higher level reasoning, critical thinking, and the ability to advocate a point of view persuasively are best taught and assessed by two interrelated instructional procedures: cooperative learning and academic controversy. Cooperative learning has been defined in a previous article (see Kluge, and Johnson & Johnson,

this volume). Controversy exists when one student's ideas, information, conclusions, theories, and opinions are incompatible with those of another, and the two seek to reach an agreement (Johnson & Johnson, 1995). In well-structured controversies, a cooperative group is divided into two pairs. The pairs are assigned opposing positions. The pairs thoroughly research their position and develop a persuasive case for its validity, present the best case possible to the other pair and listen to the opposing position, engage in a discussion in which they attempt to refute the other side and rebut the other's attacks on their position, reverse perspectives and present the best case for the opposing position, and then drop all advocacy and seek a synthesis that takes both perspectives and positions into account. Compared with concurrence-seeking, debate, and individualistic efforts, controversy results in greater mastery and retention of the subject matter, higher quality problem solving, greater creativity in thinking, greater motivation to learn more about the topic, more productive exchange of expertise among group members, greater task involvement, more positive relationships among group members, more accurate perspective taking, and higher self-esteem (Johnson & Johnson, 1995). An example of such an assessment is the Connecticut Academic Performance Test (1994) which assesses the competencies of researching a position, preparing a persuasive argument, and presenting it.

Self and Other Rating of Work Habits

Having students rate themselves and their groupmates is an important addition to most instructional units (Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1993). First, students rate the quality and quantity of their learning. Second, students rate the quality and quantity of the learning of each of their groupmates. Third, students discuss and reflect on their learning experiences (under the guidance of an observant teacher), comparing their self-ratings with the ratings they receive from groupmates. Such self and other ratings allow students to see how the quality of their work has evolved.

There are a number of factors that teachers need to assess besides test scores. Students need to arrive at class on time and be prepared to learn (have the essential materials, resources, and attitudes). Students need to provide academic help and assistance to groupmates and ask groupmates for help when they need it. In using a rating form students need to understand clearly the purpose of the form and how it will be used, the number of points (if any) the form will count in evaluating students, and the questions on the form.

Group Products

The usual rule for cooperative learning groups is that students learn in a group and are subsequently assessed as individuals (Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Johnson,

Johnson, & Smith, 1991). While in school individual assessment is more common than group assessment, in real life it may be just the opposite. In most organizations, the success of the organization as a whole, divisions in the organization, and teams in the division are focused on more frequently than is the success of each individual employee. Authentic assessment, therefore, most often means group assessment. Thus, there are times when a classroom assignment may be given requiring a group report, exhibit, performance, video, or presentation.

The cooperative goal is for group members to complete one project in which everyone has contributed a share of the work, everyone can explain its content and how it was conducted, and everyone can present to the class. The procedure is as follows. First, students are assigned an initial project and are placed in cooperative learning groups to complete it. The required materials are provided. Second, the group completes the project, ensuring that all members contributed and agree on and can explain the results. The teacher systematically observes each group and provides feedback and coaching. Third, the group hands in their report to the teacher, each member presents the results to a section of the class, and a test may be given on the content of the project. Fourth, the assignment can be extended by the teacher presenting the relevant algorithm, procedure, concept, or theory required to complete the project. Students are then given a more complex project that requires them to apply what they have just learned.

Group Processing

One audience for assessment results is the cooperative group itself. The results of assessments have to be communicated to the student and to his or her groupmates. The group members reflect on (i.e., process) the achievement level of each student and how well they are helping and assisting each other to learn (Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1993). Group processing ends with a group celebration of members' success and progress.

Total Quality Learning

In communicating to the cooperative groups the results of assessments of each student's academic progress and progress in working effectively as part of a team, the stage is set for the continuous improvement process. Total quality learning is the use of cooperative learning groups to continuously improve students' performances and group effectiveness (Johnson & Johnson, 1994). Traditionally, it is the outcomes of instruction that have been the focus of assessment. W. Edwards Deming and other advocates of total quality management in business and industry, however, stress that instead of measuring outcomes (inspecting quality in), the emphasis should be on improving the process

by which instructional and learning take place. The continuous improvement of instruction and learning consists of seven steps (Johnson & Johnson, 1994):

1. Form teams. In order to promote total quality in a school, both students (cooperative learning groups) and teachers (colleagial teaching teams) have to be assigned to teams. The teams are placed in charge of the quality of the work of its members. Team members, therefore, have to be trained to organize their work, assess its quality daily, and place the results on a quality chart to help them evaluate their effectiveness.
2. Select a process for improvement. The team needs a specific, definable process to work on. The process needs to be significant and it must be in the power of the team to change the process.
3. Define the process. The best way to define the process is to draw a picture of it. Two common ways to picture a process are the flow chart and the cause-and-effect diagram.
4. Engage in the process. Team members must engage in the process so they can measure each of its steps.
5. Gather information about the process, display the data, and analyze it. There are three parts to this step.
   a. The team identifies quantifiable factors (such as time). If a factor cannot be counted, it cannot be improved (conversely, to be able to improve it, you must be able to count it).
   b. The team develops a design for gathering the relevant data. This includes specifying what data will be collected, who will collect it, when it will be collected, and how it will be collected. A check sheet or observation form is a common way to gather data.
   c. The team analyzes and portrays the data in ways that help members understand it easily. Common ways to portray data are the Pareto chart, run chart, scatter diagram, and histogram.
6. Creating and implementing an improvement plan. A plan is created on how the process is to be modified to improve its effectiveness. The team then implements the plan. The focus is on making small, incremental improvements in a process day after day after day. The team carefully evaluates the implementation (members gather more data). If the modified process works, the team adopts it. If it does not work, the team redesigns it and tries it out again on a small basis.
7. Institutionalizing changes that work. Team members ensure that there is no backsliding (reverting to the old practices) by taking new data samples constantly, analyzing them, revising the plan, and revising the process.

Conclusion

The assessment issues that need to be considered in every classroom include the purpose of the assessment, the focus of assessments, the setting in which assessments take place, the stakes involved, and the stakeholders. The procedures that may be used to assess student learning and instructional effectiveness include student conferences, standardized and teacher-constructed tests, compositions and presentations, individual and group projects, portfolios, observation of student performances, interviews of students, attitude questionnaires, simulations, student management teams, and record keeping (attendance, homework, participation, and extra-credit). Most of these procedures can only be used if cooperative learning is also used. Cooperative learning groups provide the setting, context, and environment in which assessment becomes part of the instructional process and students learn almost as much from assessing the quality of their own and their classmates' work as they do from participating in the instructional activities.

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Chapter 14

A Cooperative Performance Test for Japanese University Conversation Classes

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When I first began teaching English conversation courses in Japanese universities, I wasn't sure what kind of test to offer the class. My courses mostly emphasized pair and/or group speaking activities. A fair test, I felt, should reflect the course content and method of instruction.

When I asked colleagues about the kinds of tests they gave, most said they gave paper-and-pencil tests of some kind, often with the reason that class size made it impractical to test student speaking abilities. Some gave tests which involved reading or writing or objective tests which tested only listening ability. However, these tests seemed unrelated to what I was asking students to do in class every week, and therefore unfair. Other teachers concluded the term by having students individually get in front of the class to deliver a speech. While at least speaking was being tested, my courses focussed on having students learn how to appropriately converse with each other in English in class. A speech didn't test such abilities as turn-taking, offering appropriate responses as a listener, etc.

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I wanted a test that tested students' conversational ability. I wanted them to not only speak but to listen and respond appropriately to others, as responding appropriately is also an important measure of being able to communicate successfully orally in a foreign language. With the above goals in mind, I eventually came up with the test I will describe in this paper. Realizing that the success of a conversation or discussion hinges on the cooperation of its participants and that the group of participants as a whole is responsible for its success, I quickly decided on a cooperative learning format (group project format) for this test.

In brief, the test requires students in groups to prepare and practice a conversation evaluated by the teacher. It is a performance assessment, by definition a type of alternative assessment, requiring students to demonstrate knowledge and skill (a definition of performance assessment may be found in Choate [1995] or Good & Brophy [1995]).

Overview of the Courses in Which the Test Has Been Used

I have used this test in all of the courses I taught over a three year period at a four year private university in which oral English communication was the focus of the course. In total, there were five different courses, offered at the first, second, and third academic years in which I used this test. Class size ranged from approximately 20 to 50 students. Courses met once a week for 90 minutes throughout the academic year.

This test is appropriate, in my opinion, for any similar *eikaiwa* [conversation] course where the focus has been student pair and/or group speaking activities. However, a teacher teaching with a class size of over 50 will have to consider how to remedy scheduling difficulties (see below) and will need to set the appropriate stage for learning before undertaking the test.

Overview of the Test

Usually, about six or seven weeks before the end of the semester, preparation for the test began. Three weeks were needed to do all of the following: explain the test to the class, get them into groups (these first two generally take half a period or less) and give them in-class time (about 2 1/2 periods) to work on preparing their test. An additional two to three weeks was usually needed for testing.

After explaining the basic requirements for the test, including the criteria for working together and the grading criteria (explained further below) each group chose a topic (one previously discussed in class or a new topic) to discuss for the test. The topics were approved by me. On the test day, each group was instructed to have a 20 to 30 minute discussion. In general, I required a four

member group of first year students to converse for 20 minutes; a second year student group of the same size 20 to 25 minutes, and third year students 25 to 30 minutes.

My class size ranged from 20 to 48, and students were generally grouped into four member groups. Therefore, the number of groups per class tended to be between 5 and 12. Teachers with larger enrollments may need to make scheduling adjustments. If instructional days are not to be reduced further, non-instructional time (at the beginning or ending of the day, lunch hours, etc.) would have to be used for testing. Videotaping or audiotaping the tests outside of class may be possible, but requires minimally that students do this outside of class and also perhaps additional teacher time to view or listen to the tapes outside of class, as well as access to equipment. Other options could be reducing the test time or increasing group size. In cases where the teacher needs to shorten the test time, the difficulty level of the topic could perhaps be increased. Teachers who schedule the test during instructional periods but are concerned about missed instructional days could ask students to do other work outside of class to make up the time, assuming students do not need to come to class for all the testing days. Alternately students could be required to attend (though I did not choose this option for reasons I will explain below).

Students were not allowed to use any notes, papers, books, dictionaries, or aids other than visual aids such as photographs, pictures, or maps used to facilitate discussion on the test day. Some students whose topic was, for example, foreign travel, used travel photographs and area maps which they showed their group members as they conversed. Other aids used artfully by students included high school year books, family photographs, charts or pictures they drew on the black board, Japanese magazines which they talked about in English, and miscellaneous paraphernalia and props including such things as jump ropes, CDs, and guitars. Students were very creative in their use of aids; these made the conversations both more lively and more comprehensible. Texts were disallowed so that there was no reading from a paper.

The full grading criteria (explained below) were given to students at the time the test was explained, immediately preceding grouping the class for the test.

Grouping the Students into Test Groups

I have used three methods for grouping the class:

a. The students were free to sign up for any test day and time available;
b. The grouping was the result of chance, where students choosing a card with a letter or number on it determined which group they were to work with;
c. I have on one occasion hand picked the groups using as my criteria attendance patterns (those with a similar rate of attendance were grouped to-

gether) and secondarily where a choice remained (e.g., 12 students all have perfect attendance), and diversity (e.g., creating gender diverse groups).

Results of the Three Methods

Method A. Being free to sign up for any test day and time available, which allows students to choose the membership of their group, has been the overwhelming favorite of second and third year student classes, particularly smaller classes. When asked to pick a method from among the three described above, a show of hands of all classes but one showed 80 to 90+% of second and third year students in favor of this method.

Method B. The grouping by chance (lottery) method has been the overwhelming favorite (usually about 90% in favor) of the first year students, who also were asked to vote for the grouping method they preferred through a show of hands. I believe first year students prefer this method because, unlike second and third year students, they don't know the others in the class as well socially. With cliques being less defined in first year perhaps it is uncomfortable for them to choose whom to work with.

Method C. In the one second year class which voted to have me to make the groups rather than them, I decided (and they concurred) that going by attendance record in the class was a fair method of grouping them. Percentage of classes attended was the first criterion and where that left further options the secondary criterion was diversity (gender, nationality, or age) with the idea, as Maznevski (1994) has noted, that diversity improves group performance. However, I think I will probably not repeat this method. The reason I disliked this method was that it seemed that performance on the test did turn out to be directly correlated with the attendance patterns; in other words, those with high or perfect attendance ended up with A's on the test, and those with so-so attendance got so-so marks, etc. I wondered if, as is often the case with ability groupings, the results were based on a kind of self-fulfilling prophesy. I thought at first this method was fair, because it seemed unfair to put a diligent student in a group, for example, who had never missed a lesson with a "lazy" one who had perhaps missed nearly half of the lessons. Certainly, the latter can pose a problem to be worked out, but working out such problems is part of the work of a cooperative learning class. Trying to shield students from such problems may diminish their growth experience. (Of course laziness is not the only explanation for student absence.)

Diversity of any kind can be beneficial to all in terms of offering a balance of strengths and weaknesses and allowing members to positively influence each other. (See Joritz-Nakagawa, 1997, for a brief look at the advantages of heterogeneity and dangers of self-fulfilling prophecies.) In my experience, and as has been noted above to be characteristic of high-functioning groups, most often the group seems

to rise to the highest level of combined strengths in the group. Since I prefer the test to be a learning tool (doing double duty as an evaluation tool), not a separating or screening device, this grouping method appears wanting. Such grouping may bias the teacher just at the time she is engaged in the task of assigning grades to students. Further, a positive class experience while working on this test may encourage so-so contributors to contribute more in the future to the course. I believe this grouping method was one of my early mistakes in learning myself to use cooperative learning. (Another was assigning individual grades to each participant but it was impossible to extricate the individual contributions from the group performance, and I feel this method does not reflect the teacher's commitment to the idea that the group must be accountable as a group.)

Presenting the Test Objectives and Criteria to Students

I gave students a handout which explained the basic information they needed to know to prepare for the test. Students read this handout. Then, it was explained by me orally. Finally, there was a question and answer period about the objectives and guidelines. There were few if any questions and answers because students already knew about the test, as it was explained at the onset of the course, and was not a radical departure from our regular instruction. (See the Appendix A for a sample of a handout given to a second year oral English class.)

Group Preparation for the Test

As mentioned above, each group met usually for 2 $^{1/2}$ class periods to discuss what topic they will discuss, decide the content, and practice their discussion for the test. In my experience students request and seem to want very little help from me during this time. The sort of help I gave, upon request, was usually restricted to answering language questions (often, checking the grammaticality of questions or confirming word usage as appropriate). Most groups wished to use all of the allotted time to prepare; occasionally I had a group who said they had finished preparing early (e.g,, in 1 $^{1/2}$ or 2 class periods). I brought along work for students to do (usually something such as a conversation board game or vocabulary game) just in case some finished their work early. In this instance, I allowed those groups who wished to prepare to do so, and others could take from me an activity (or devise their own activity if appropriate).

Most students approached preparation for the test with visible diligence and seriousness; in fact, the vast majority of students appeared to wholeheartedly enjoy preparing for the test. The classroom atmosphere tended to be extremely animated during this time, often punctuated by a lot of laughter. (Many students incorporated humor into their discussion.) Occasionally I had some groups who seemed to be wasting their class preparation time though these were the exception to the rule. Upon observing this, I approached the group and at-

tempted to see what was going on by asking questions, and tried to encourage them toward working diligently on test preparation if they didn't seem to be working hard. In these cases I might help resolve a problem if that were the reason for the interruption in work or ask the group detailed questions about their topic to identify areas where they could further prepare.

On the test day it should be clear if any groups haven't worked diligently as the quality of their work will generally be substantially lower than other groups. The exception may be if you have a very broad range of levels in your class including students with very high facility in English who perhaps could do well on this type of test without expending a lot of effort. However, I feel while it is possible for anyone to succeed in this test, it is also unlikely for even an especially talented individual or group to function well without preparing somewhat seriously, and especially preparing together, for this test.

In short, individual effort and group cooperation are the key determinants of success. Discussions of groups who haven't prepared thoroughly will have a random character to them; the pace of discussion will be adversely affected; there will be many more hesitations, for example when groping for something to say. If they didn't practice well together, what members say may not flow together well (will sound disjointed, etc.). These qualities lower the grade on the test and may prevent passing, as the test and grading criteria explained above shows. Students are instructed to speak naturally but the discussion is supposed to come off more like a panel discussion on TV, where the participants know in advance what the topic is and have taken some pains to prepare; which enables them to participate smoothly, intelligently, and effectively. However, students are advised not to sound overly rehearsed. (See test instructions and criteria explained above.)

The Examinations

At the time of this writing, I have given this test on over 30 occasions. The first time I administered this test to student groups in five different courses, I was overwhelmed at seeing what the students could do. I had been particularly worried that many of my first year students, for example, couldn't carry on this type of 20 minute discussion successfully, but this was not the case. The success rate continued with the only disappointments, and these have been few, being students who had ignored the instructions for the test and didn't prepare sufficiently. I gave this test both at midterm and at the end of the academic year, and have found the few groups who test poorly at midterm tend to make amends at the final. However it may be possible that students who do very well at midterm could slack off at the final for full year courses if they are not highly motivated or depending upon the weight of the test in terms of the final grade, for example. Though I gave a weighting of half of the course grade to this test, the teacher needs to determine what weighting in her situation makes sense.

Another pleasure has been to witness the teamwork evident in mixed level groupings. If one student gets stuck during the test, it is usual that another member will assist by, for example, supplying the word or sentence that the other can't recall or hasn't in fact learned, or will clarify what the other has said if they have communicated in such a way that the meaning might be unclear (e.g., A: *Do you mean . . . .?* B: *Yes, yes!*).

I have also seen the varying of roles to complement the varying strengths of members, for example, through the group's choice of a discussion leader or "emcee." Of course these behaviors are in the group's best interest as they are being evaluated as a group based on such criteria as everyone appearing competent, unimpeded flow of communication and so forth, but the teacher will also see it occur naturally in groups with harmonious relations whether or not any formal evaluation is being done. In other words, I view this as the natural result of groups with, to use Goleman's (1995) term, a high group IQ.

The test need not force the cooperation but rather test criteria should be consistent with the practices that have been valued in the classroom. There is no greater experience I think to seeing your students, one by one, group by group, engaging in effective and frequently stimulating conversations done entirely in English without reaching for a set of notes or a dictionary, and helping each other be effective. Interestingly, I have witnessed numerous students practicing with their groups on their own time outside of class. Since many students otherwise appear loathe to do homework, this seems to me a good sign indeed.

Occasionally, some students will balk at the test when I first explain it, thinking "I can't do this!" Succeeding gives students a confidence in their abilities—this confidence may be the best gift you can give them. Success on the midterm test appears to often lead to increased confidence in speaking during the second semester.

One other difficulty for the teacher may be, if she has many classes in which this test will be given, the two or three test weeks will actually take a lot of her energy. While there is little preparation for the teacher (in fact the last five or six weeks of the term, following the schedule I have outlined here based on my class size and school calendar, required little preparation on my part), listening attentively to group after group and being, of course, responsible for evaluating the students while doing so requires some resilience. But the popularity of this test and my feeling that it is appropriate and fair given the teaching situation makes it, I think, worthwhile.

Grading and Feedback

As mentioned above, in my oral English courses student course grades for each term were calculated as 50% group test grade and 50% individual participation grade. The group test grade reflected my impression of how well the group

fulfilled the criteria described above. The participation grade reflected the percentage of classes students individually attended, and also took into account factors such as tardiness and level of participation (class behavior). A student who attended all courses in the term and participated adequately each time would thus receive 100 points for their participation grade.

Students received their individual participation grades during a private conference with the teacher, and the group grade during a group conference with the teacher. Students were encouraged to give their own impression of their work during these conferences. Students also did anonymous evaluations of the course as a whole usually during the first semester, and often again in the second semester. These evaluations solicited such information as which topics they were interested in discussing, their feeling about the balance between listening and speaking activities, and what size groups they preferred for conversation.

I gave each group a copy of a test feedback form (see Appendix). I merely circled strong/weak points; this made it easy for me to complete the form and easy for the group to understand it. The form can be explained to the whole class before giving the feedback. This information is not new but is the same as the test instructions and criteria students received before the test, explained above, but in a different form. Any additional comments were written in the margins or on the bottom or reverse side of the form. Additional comments were, for example, responses to specific ideas from or comments about specific language used in the discussion.

At the end of the list I have mentioned vocabulary, structure, pronunciation, and intonation. However, these elements were considered important for purposes of grading the group only as far as they (e.g., word choice/grammar/pronunciation) might inhibit comprehensibility of the discussion or diminish its impact (e.g., consistently flat intonation, though perhaps indicative of lack of English mastery, may come off as lack of enthusiasm).

Summary

In general, I have been abundantly pleased observing the process of student groups working together on this test as well as their finished products. Students frequently commented that they enjoyed this test. Some having taken the test at midterm have asked me: Could we please have this same test again at the final? While test grades have varied, only those who have ignored the test instructions have failed the test; it is designed so that any group of individuals, with effort and cooperation skills, have the possibility of passing the course.

This test also meets important criteria for performance tests as described by Good and Brophy (1994, p. 641): 1) students should be assigned assessment tasks that are educative and engaging (i.e., not just memorize lists); 2) students should

know what the performance standards are (they should be subjected to minimal secrecy in testing and grading); 3) there should be clear criteria for grading work; 4) students need ample opportunity (e.g., enough time) to produce successful work; 5) students should be given the opportunity to display and document their positive achievements (versus tests which aim to reveal their weaknesses); and 6) students are given the chance to question grades and test practices.

I feel this test is an appropriate and fair conclusion to a semester of pair and group conversation in the Japanese university setting, where care has been taken to create an atmosphere conducive to cooperative learning and schedule the activities appropriately. Students participating in the test are engaged in a learning experience which requires them to be responsible for creating and carrying out a discussion in a group.

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Appendix

Test Comment Form

Test Comment Form
Class: Listening Speaking Discussion I II
Day: Tu We Fr

Instructor: J. Nakagawa
English Convers. I
Per: 1 2 3

Group number:_____
Member names:_____
Test grade:_____ (= 50% of TERM grade)

Impression of strong points:

_____ Easy to understand
_____ Loud enough
_____ Interesting /stimulating topic

_____ Talked about only one topic
_____ Appropriate length
_____ Shared time equally
_____ Natural sounding
_____ Sounded relaxed / good pace
_____ Used English "aizuchi" and Q&A
_____ Seemed to enjoy conversing
_____ Adequately prepared
_____ Spoke without notes
_____ On time for test and generally followed instructions
_____ Good use of English vocabulary and structure
_____ Good pronunciation / intonation
_____ Used only English

Impression of weak points:

_____ Sometimes/often hard to understand
_____ Sometimes/often couldn't hear
_____ Content inappropriate/too easy/go into more depth
_____ Talked about more than 1 topic
_____ Too short
_____ Did not share time equally
_____ Sounded rehearsed/unnatural
_____ Seemed nervous/ slow paced
_____ Need to use "aizuchi"/Q&A more
_____ Didn't show a lot of enthusiasm
_____ Preparation seemed inadequate
_____ Tried to use notes
_____ Were late for test and/or didn't follow instructions
_____ English vocab./structure below average for this academic year
_____ Need to work on pron./intonation
_____ Occasional use of native languages

SECTION VI

Bibliography
文献

Chapter 15

An Annotated Bibliography of Cooperative Language Learning

Steve McGuire

Nagoya University of Arts

Books

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Adams, D., & Hamm, M. (1996). *Cooperative learning: Critical thinking and collaboration across the curriculum.* Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas. 283 pp. *Aimed particularly at elementary and middle school learners but the activities presented would be useful in an EFL situation. Gives a good overview of cooperative learning.*

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Bennett, B., Rolheiser, C., & Stevahn, L. (1991). *Cooperative learning: Where heart meets mind.* Ajaz, Ontario: Educational Connections. 345 pp. *A resource book for teachers to plan and structure cooperative lessons and for students to use to track their progress in using cooperative skills. Lots of sample lessons, worksheets, photocopiable materials.*

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Cantlon, T. (1991). *The first four weeks of cooperative learning: Activities and materials.* Portland, OR: Prestige Publishers. 109 pp. *A practical step-by-step guide to getting started with cooperative learning. Includes photocopiable materials.*

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Hilke, E. V. (1990). *Cooperative learning.* Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation. 32 pp. *Excellent for readers just starting out with cooperative learning.*

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Kagan, S. (1992). *Cooperative learning: Resources for teachers.* San Juan Capistrano, CA: Kagan Cooperative Learning. 273 pp. *This book explains basic theory, describes methods, gives advice on how to run teacher training workshops, and provides plenty of worksheets, sample certificates, and materials for classes.*

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Commercial Organizations

The Cooperation Company, P.O. Box 422, Deer Park, CA 94576. *Catalog of cooperative learning books, games, videos, cassette tapes, and posters.*

Kagan Cooperative Learning Co., 27134 Paseo Espada #302, San Juan Capistrano, CA 92675. *Organization that runs institutes, workshops, and consulting services, as well as publishes books and material on cooperative learning.*

Organizations

Center for Social Organization of Schools, The Johns Hopkins University, Department L88, 3005 N Charles St., Baltimore, MD 21218. *A cooperative learning research center.*

Cooperative Learning Center, University of Minnesota, 60 Peik Hall, 159 Pillsbury Drive, S.E., Minneapolis, MN 55455. *Research, books, and workshop-oriented center.*

Cooperation Unlimited, P.O. Box 68, Portage, MI, 49081. *Gives cooperative learning workshops.*

International Association for the Study of Cooperation in Education (IASCE), 136 Liberty St., Santa Cruz, CA 95060. *An organization which researches educational cooperation and sponsors international conferences.*

Newsletters

Cooperation Unlimited Newsletter. (Available from Educational Excellence, P.O. Box 68, Portage, MI 49081). *Contains information, advice from teachers, resource lists, and sample lesson plans.*

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Education (IASCE), 136 Liberty St., Santa Cruz, CA 95060). *A magazine with practical articles from experts and teachers.*

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Resources on the Net

A search on any search engine (such as Altavista <http://www.altavista.com>) for cooperative learning will generate a good list of Web sites dealing with cooperative learning, but a nice collection of links can be found at <http://miavx1.muohio.edu/~iascecwis/resource.htmlx>. Some of those sites are listed here, but if you'd like to avoid typing in the URL (Web address), please go to the above site directly.

California Department of Education, Cooperative Learning Home Page <http://www.cde.ca.gov/iasa/cooplrng.html>. *An excellent overview of cooperative learning's response to diversity in the classroom. Also includes other links.*

Computer Support for Cooperative Learning (CSCL) <http://www-cscl95.indiana.edu/cscl95.> *Not updated since 1996, but has links to conference proceedings from the CSCL95 conference.*

Cooperative Learning Listserv: A discussion list on cooperative learning. Subscribe to the CL listserv by sending an e-mail message to <LISTSERVER @JARING.MY>. In the body of the message, include: Subscribe CL First-name Last-name. Postings to the list itself go to <CL@jaring.my>.

ERIC Abstracts on Cooperative Learning <http://www.ascd.org/services/eric/ericcoo.html>: *Prepared by the Association on Supervision and Curriculum Development.*

Johns Hopkins University, Center for Social Organization of Schools <http://scov.csos.jhu.edu/csos.html>.

Kagan Cooperative Learning Catalog <http://www.KaganCoopLearn.com/>.

Sheridan College: The Cooperative Learning Network Home Page <http://www.sheridanc.on.ca/coop_learn/cooplrn.htm>. *Focuses on learning at the college classroom level.*

Susan Ledlow and Neil Davidson's home page <http://www2.emc.maricopa.edu/innovation/CCL/CCL.html>. *Information on cooperative and collaborative learning at the college level.*

University of Minnesota, David and Roger Johnson's Home Page <http://www.clcrc.com>. *Includes schedule for seminars on cooperative learning.*

University of New York at Plattsburg, Enhancing Education Through Cooperative Learning and Technology <http://www.plattsburgh.edu/psy/psy520/cooplearn.html>. *Answers the most commonly asked questions and includes ideas for application.*

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Cooperative Learning

Cooperative Learning is the third collection of articles in the JALT Applied Materials Series. This book introduces the concept of cooperative learning and gives examples of cooperative learning activities and student evaluation strategies currently used by teachers in Japanese. Contributors are writing from many contexts, including Japanese junior high schools, English conversation schools, and colleges and universities.

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